The Outlook

JULY 12, 1916

Offices, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York

THE STORY OF THE WAR:
THE NEW OFFENSIVE OF THE ALLIES

As the week of June 28–July 5 closes it is too soon to estimate the extent and importance of the combined British and French attack upon the German lines on both sides of the Somme River. Both armies of the Allies have driven back the German forces opposed to them along a wider front than has been covered in the other noteworthy offensives on the western battle-line. They have not "broken through" the German defense, but they have bent back and forced back portions of the line; they have, according to London reports, captured combinedly, up to July 4, some fourteen thousand prisoners in three days' fighting and have taken a fairly large number of field guns. On the other hand, as the fighting continues the Germans are strengthening their defense and are stubbornly resisting the fierce and continuous attack. The British have occupied the town of Fricourt and less important villages; the French have captured Barleux and other villages, and, as we write, are advancing in formidable force on the important town and railway center of Peronne. A map is on the next page.

Looking at the movement as a whole, it must be regarded as a part of the large concerted plan of the Allies to hammer the German defense, first at one point, then at another, and perhaps, finally, at all points all together. The great advantage which the entire German defense possesses is that it is being maintained on interior lines, with the enemy attacking from the outside. Thus, if the Germans and their allies hold every part of their lines east and west, north and south, with a force strong enough to resist attack, and if, as seems to be the case, they can also maintain a detached, mobile fighting force, they can move this "extra" force with great rapidity over their splendid network of railways to precisely the point where it is needed. But if, as we surmise is now the case, the Allies attack at different points and with absolutely concerted purpose, this German method of defense becomes more difficult; and in time one of the terrific hammer blows may really break through. One must always remember, in the strategy of this war, that driving back the enemy a few miles to a new line of trenches can never be in itself decisive, not even if those lines of defense are at such a place as Verdun. To *break through* and thus divide the enemy is essential to a decision. This happened when the German forces broke through the Russians in Galicia more than a year ago—a break which resulted in the retreat of the Russians for two or three hundred miles before they could form a new line of defense; and, again, in the drive this summer of the Russians against the Austrians, which has truly broken the Austrian lines, but to a less extent and less conclusively.

The offensive of the British and French did not have the effect of causing the fighting about Verdun to cease. In the week ending July 5 desperate attacks and counter-attacks have gone on, especially around the Thiaumont position—Thiaumont is not even a village, but a farm and a road, yet here some of the most horrible slaughter of the war has taken place. As we write, it is announced that the Germans have taken the Thiaumont position for the fourth time after a terrific bombardment and a massed attack. Three times, then, the French have by counter-assault driven the Germans back at this point, and, whatever may be the final result, the defense of Verdun bids fair to be carried well into its fifth month.

Elsewhere there has been lively fighting during the week. The Russians are advancing on the Carpathians, and by their capture of Kolomea, to the northwest of Czernowitz, they seem to have begun an encircling movement westward and northward which threatens Lemberg seriously. The Italians have stormed the crests of hills in the Trentino section and continue to increase the gains reported last week, while on the Isonzo front (that is, in the Italian advance ultimately aimed at Trieste) activity after a long cessa-

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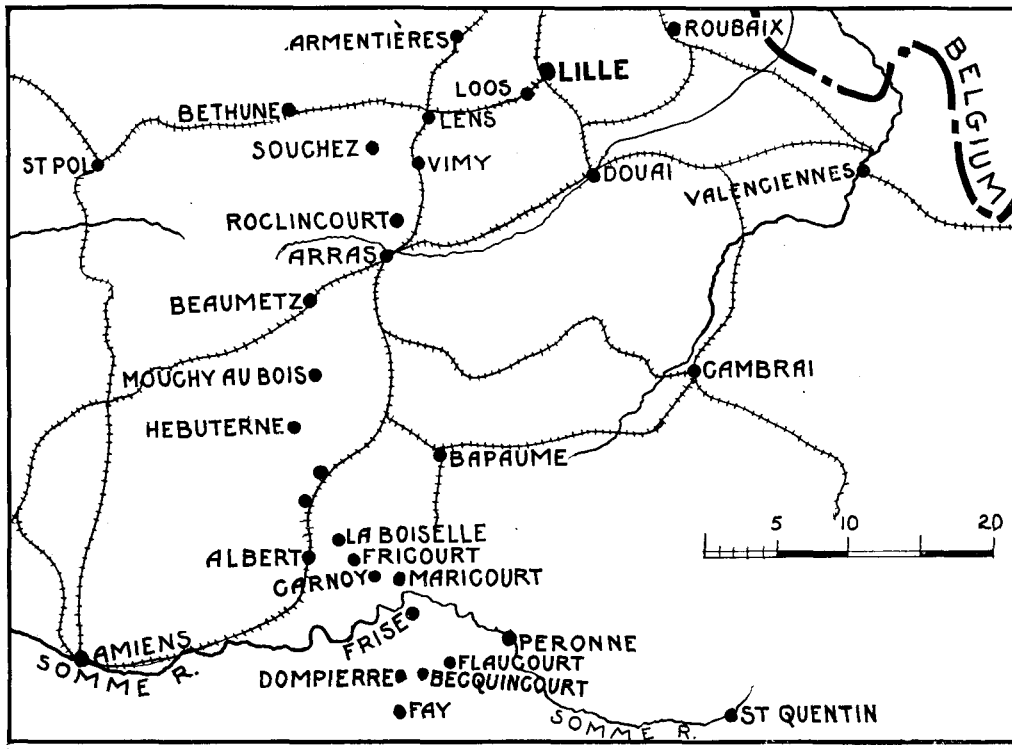

THE SCENE OF THE FIGHTING ON THE WESTERN FRONT
See The Story of the War

tion has again sprung up into a flame of bombardment.

LIEBKNECHT IMPRISONED

Some four months ago The Outlook reported a remark made to an American university professor by Dr. Karl Liebknecht to the effect that his opposition to the war put him in personal danger, so much so that it was not beyond the bounds of possibility that he might at any time disappear and never be heard of again. What has happened is less dramatic, but still severe. Dr. Liebknecht has been convicted of attempted high treason, insubordination, and resistance to authority, and has been sentenced to thirty months' penal servitude, with hard labor. Curiously enough until the motive is understood, the Court laid stress on extenuating circumstances and on political fanaticism as actuating Dr. Liebknecht rather than personal turpitude. This allowed the Court to give the minimum term, and also to send Liebknecht to a state prison instead of an Imperial fortress. If he had been sent to a fortress, the sentence would have carried with it a deprivation of citizenship. Now, why did the German Government desire not to deprive Liebknecht of citizenship? We are informed by a German Socialist in this country who has corresponded for several of the most important German Social-Democratic papers that the reason is simply that the Government does not dare to face the political result that would ensue. Under the actual sentence, Liebknecht continues to be a member of the Reichstag. If he lost his citizenship, a new election would be held, and the result, as deduced from the party votes in 1912 and from the present situation, would assuredly be the election of a new member who would also be an anti-war Social-Democrat. This explanation is reasonable and is backed by quotations from recent German letters. Our informant also points out that even in December, 1914, there were statements made in the Budget Committee of the Reichstag, not only by Socialists, but by Radicals and members of other political parties, that they would not have voted for the war credit of August 4, 1914, if the Imperial Chancellor had then told the truth regarding Russian operations.

The informant to whom we have already

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alluded so interested the editors of The Outlook by his statements in connection with the Socialist situation in Germany, and so confirmed things that were said in The Outlook's interviews with the three leading German Socialists (Liebknecht, Kautsky, and Bernstein) in its issue for January 26 last—interviews which have been called into question, but for the truth of which The Outlook vouched and still vouches—that they asked him directly: Is the Socialist and Radical opposition to the war in Germany based more largely on the hatred of all war or on the feeling that this particular war is wrong on the part of Germany because it is a war of aggression by Germany? He said that the latter was the case; that all German Socialists and Radicals knew that England and France did not want war and that Russia would not begin war without support, and that consequently Germany and Austria together were responsible for the war. In reply to a question as to how large a proportion of German voters, whether Socialists or not, in his judgment, held this view, he replied that two-thirds of them held that view.

This surprising statement from a man who is unquestionably well informed as to actual conditions in Germany to-day throws light, not only on the Liebknecht matter, but on the fact that Germany has allowed "Vorwärts" to publish some of the articles which have been reprinted here, and on the fact that Max Harden has also been given so free a pen.

With Liebknecht's imprisonment closes for the present his brave and vigorous fight against German militarism and against the war into which that militarism has plunged the German people.

THE CONVICTION OF CASEMENT

No surprise is felt in any direction at the conviction of Sir Roger Casement on the charge of high treason and his sentence to death. Whatever sympathy may be felt with Sir Roger, there can be no question that under the law he was guilty of attempting to raise an armed force against the Government of the country of which he was legally a citizen, which he had served with distinction, and from which he had received a title. The trial itself, although it took place with the Lord Chief Justice on the bench, and was for a crime rarely known in these days, attracted comparatively little attention while it was going on because the evidence was chiefly a mere repetition of that heard in the lower court. Not until Sir Roger himself faced the jury and pleaded with eloquence, not for his life, but for public recognition of the fact that he had acted "for the exercise of his conscience," and that he was, from his point of view, "adhering to his own people," did the public of Great Britain thrill with the solemnity of the occasion. Sir Roger's speech, while utterly devoid of convincing argument, was in the main dignified, was not over-emotional for the occasion, and, while it probably did not change any man's opinion as to the questions of legality and loyalty involved, it did impress the world with the honesty of Sir Roger's misguided and unreasoning theory of patriotism. The case against him from the Irish point of view is well put in a letter written by Mr. George Bateman to the New York "Evening Post." The writer is a Home-Ruler, and until convinced by common sense was of the physical force movement, yet he says:

> I am in favor of the death sentence on Casement, not so much because he conspired against England as because he dared to usurp the mischievous position of dictator to the Irish people, ignoring the elected representatives and spokesmen of the nation, and in his mad efforts stabbed in the back Irishmen who are fighting in the trenches, dimming the glory of those who have already given their life for a cause that to them is and was as consecrated and holy as Irish independence is to men like this Irish-pro-German knight of King George. The task of establishing legislative independence in Ireland has been made harder; the work of the miscalled Unionists has been facilitated; and hundreds of young Irishmen and Irish officers and soldiers, with innocent women and children, injured and killed, is all he has achieved.

As we are quoting from Mr. Bateman's letter we must give our readers also the dramatic touch with which that letter ends. The writer tells how, many years ago, he asked Michael Davitt who a young man was that had just been "bothering" Davitt. Davitt's reply was, "He is just one of those friends of Ireland who are Ireland's worst enemies." The young man was Casement.

VICTOR CHAPMAN

Last week we told of a young American who, for the cause of human liberty against the tyranny that knows no law, moral or international, gave his life as an aviator in the French army. On the last day of

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June a simple and impressive service was held in Trinity Church, New York City, to the memory of this young man, Victor Chapman, son of the author John Jay Chapman.

According to the reports that reached this country from France, the young aviator was killed after starting on an errand of mercy. An American sergeant in the French army, wounded at Verdun, was lying exhausted in a hospital a few miles from the aviation camp to which Victor Chapman was attached. The sergeant had begged for an orange, but none was to be had at the hospital. Corporal Chapman heard of the incident and wished to gratify the desire of his comrade. He obtained a small basket of oranges and set forth in his aeroplane. While on his way he discovered that several black spots against the sky to his right were French aeroplanes engaged with German machines. The young corporal of the Franco-American Aviation Corps dashed into the fight. He rose to a great height, and, swooping down upon the Germans, put his machine gun into action. His bullets found the mark. Two German machines fell to earth. Then Boelke, the famous German aviator, who has accounted for eighteen aeroplanes, turned on Chapman, catching him at such an angle that the German machine gun was able to rake the French aeroplane. Chapman plunged lifeless to earth, falling within the German lines.

In the memorial service in New York City historic old Trinity Church was decorated with the entwined flags of France and the United States, symbolic of the friendship that has lasted between the Republic of France and the Republic of the United States from the days of Rochambeau and Lafayette to the present. There were no addresses, no tribute to the heroism and idealism of this young man who had died for his faith. Nothing more was needed than the spirit in which the hymns were sung and the service was read. There was no repining. It was a service not merely of memorial character but of dedication to those principles of freedom and right and duty to which men have testified by their lives in all times. The service began with the processional hymn, "O God, our help in ages past, our hope for years to come." And at the close, the organ, with crashing chords, pealed out the majestic harmonies and inspiriting melody of that international song of liberty that the French have given to the world—the "Marseillaise."

In spite of the fact that there seem to be many people in the United States who fail to see any moral issues in the present war, there are signs that in this country, as well as in Europe, this is an age of faith.

THE APPELMANN CASE

In The Outlook for April 26 we told the story of some correspondence between Professor A. H. Appelmann, of the Department of German in the University of Vermont, and Dr. Rohrbach, of Berlin. Professor Appelmann wrote to Dr. Rohrbach, a distinguished German publicist, asking what should be the proper attitude of German-Americans towards the preparedness movement. In his reply Dr. Rohrbach used the following sentences:

> It seems to me quite conceivable that, in the event of an American-Japanese war, we [that is to say, Germans in Germany] should adopt an attitude of very benevolent neutrality towards Japan, and therefore make it easier for her to beat America. In that case, why should we [that is to say, Germans in America] help on the American armament policy, which is often represented as being directed against the event of German victory? . . .
>
> I cannot see, therefore, that German political aims will be forwarded *ipso facto* by German-Americans lending themselves to the scheme for American armament.

We called these phrases "an invitation to sedition," and we still think that is the proper term to apply to them. In our issue of June 14 we published a letter from President Benton, of the University of Vermont, defending Professor Appelmann, and saying that "he is a scholarly investigator, an inspiring and popular teacher, and a gentleman of refinement and character." President Benton implied in his letter that the trustees of the University of Vermont were convinced that Professor Appelmann has not been "recreant to his trust," and asked that he "be given the benefit of doubts which are altogether in his favor." Unfortunately, the doubts are not altogether in his favor. The pernicious activities of a considerable body of German propagandists in this country have been such as fairly to give rise to the question whether Dr. Appelmann is serving the State of Vermont, by which to all intents and purposes he is employed, since he is a paid teacher of a State institution, as loyally as he desires to serve his home Government. The German-American propaganda in this country has failed, but not through any lack of tireless activity on the part of certain German-Americans. The Rev. Reinhold Niebuhr, minister

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of a church in Detroit, and a German-American of the second generation, in the "Atlantic Monthly" for July publishes a striking article in which he says:

The position of German-Americanism in this country would have been fortified against suspicions of disloyalty and its defense of the German cause would have been more convincing and effective had it been less indifferent to the ideals and principles of this Nation.

We commend this passage to Dr. Appelmann.

These remarks are prompted by the fact that at the recent annual meeting of the Alumni Association of the University of Vermont, held in Burlington, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, In the recent past several American publications of the best repute, and Colonel Roosevelt, have seen fit to criticise the anti-American activities of A. H. Appelmann, Professor of German at the University of Vermont; and

Whereas, Because of this criticism, sinister suspicions are current which involve the good name of the University and one of its professors;

Resolved, That the chairman of this committee of alumni appoint a committee of five to investigate the activities of Professor Appelmann and report its findings, as soon as practicable, to the president of this Association, who is requested to lay them before the Board of Trustees.

Responsible men connected with the University believe that the correspondence carried on with Dr. Rohrbach is not the only correspondence which Dr. Appelmann has had with pro-German propagandists. The statement has even been made to us that Dr. Appelmann has had an actual and definite mission from his home Government in this country. We do not say that this allegation is true; it may be mere rumor. But we think the Alumni Association was quite wise in calling for an investigation, which ought to be welcomed by the University authorities, and most of all by Dr. Appelmann, if he has been unfairly accused. The Burlington "Free Press," published in the beautiful university town in which the University of Vermont is situated, on the shores of Lake Champlain, intimates that the criticism of Dr. Appelmann on the part of the Vermont Alumni is disloyalty to the State University. We disagree. The matter has reached the point when not merely the reputation of Dr. Appelmann but the reputation of the University of Vermont is at stake. The honest man and the honest institution, when unjustly accused, court an honest investigation. The Burlington "Free Press" says that the question concerning Professor Appelmann's attitude will disappear "when the facts are known." Well, what are the facts? How can they better be made known than through an open and honorable investigation carried on upon a high university plane?

NEWS FROM RUSSIA

It is to be regretted that the Russian censorship on political news seems to relax little, if any, as the war continues. The mere cabled statement recently that the Russian Duma had passed a bill granting to peasants "the same civil rights as are given to other classes of the population" has been hailed by the American press as a news item of prime importance. So it would be, if true, and if we knew any of the details of the bill. But Russians living in this country who are ordinarily well informed as to the news from the Czar's Empire have nothing to add to this newspaper cable, and are, moreover, in disagreement as to what such report probably means.

It might mean the emancipation of the peasants from the control of the land communes, which still exist to a considerable extent in southern and eastern Russia, although many of them were abolished by Premier Stolypin in 1908; or the bill so vaguely described by cable might mean an extension of the franchise possessed by the peasants.

The peasants in Russia form a class by themselves. Since the abolition of serfdom by the Czar Alexander II in 1861 the privileges of the peasants have been increased. They were enfranchised by the present Czar in the famous Manifesto of October 30, 1905. But in governmental affairs they have still far less power than the other classes of the people. The members of the Duma are chosen by electoral colleges in each province, and these in turn are elected by electoral assemblies chosen by the several classes of the population. The larger landed proprietors sit in these assemblies in person, the lesser ones are represented by delegates, but the peasants are represented only at the fourth remove, since their delegates in these assemblies are elected by the assembly of the *Volost*, or canton, which is

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made up of delegates from the peasant towns.

However commendable may be the reforms proposed in this bill, the probability is that it will be defeated by the Council of the Empire, the upper and more reactionary legislative chamber in Russian so-called representative government. Even if passed by the Council of the Empire, the bill must be approved by the Czar before becoming law. Whatever its fate may be, the bill is important as one more evidence of the forces moving towards democracy in Russia with persistent vigor.

The loan recently negotiated with the Russian Government on the initiative of the National City Bank of New York is one more step towards closer relations between Russia and America. This loan has been arranged to run not longer than three years at six and a half per cent interest. Both interest and principal are payable in New York in dollars.

The Outlook has already spoken of the formation in New York City of the American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, the purpose of which is to promote trade between the United States and Russia. This organization is in touch with the Russian-American Chamber of Commerce of Moscow. Another body which can be of great assistance to Americans contemplating business enterprises in Russia is the "Society for Promoting Mutual Friendly Relations between Russia and America," with headquarters in Petrograd at 59 Nevsky Prospekt. The monthly bulletins of this Society occasionally contain articles in English of much importance to American exporters. For instance, in the April number, which has just reached us, is an article telling American exporters of refrigerating machinery how to get the great amount of business in this commodity formerly held by Germany, but now largely going begging. With the Russians asking us to sell them our goods and telling us how to meet their peculiar needs, even to describing the nomenclature which ought to be put on machinery for Russia, we will cut a sorry figure as business men if we let this opportunity go unseized.

CARRANZA'S CHANGE OF TONE

Frequently in diplomacy it is not so much what is said as the way in which it is said that is significant. The tone of a diplomatic document is often as important as its text. It would be difficult to imagine a more abrupt change than the change between the tone of the Carranza note delivered to the United States on May 31 and the tone of the note which was made public in Washington on July 5. The former document was bombastic, arrogant, and menacing; the latter is mild and almost modest.

Carranza's latest communication is short. The First Chief makes very evident his anxiety to avoid war with the United States, saying that the release of the American prisoners taken in the battle of Carrizal "was a further proof of the sincerity of the desire of this Government to reach a pacific and satisfactory arrangement of present difficulties." These difficulties, Carranza declares, lie in the belief which the American Government holds, "reasonably, that the insecurity of its frontier is a source of difficulty," and the belief of the Mexican Government "that the stay of American troops on Mexican territory, aside from being a trespass on the sovereignty of Mexico, is the immediate cause of the conflict." But, unlike the note delivered on May 31, Carranza does not demand "the immediate withdrawal" of the Americans; he merely suggests that this subject and the protection of the border constitute two problems "the solution of which must be the directing object of the efforts of both Governments."

With this end in view, Carranza suggests that the United States and Mexico submit their differences to arbitration. He says that the *de facto* Government has already "accepted in principle" the mediation offers "of several Latin-American countries," and that "therefore the Mexican Government only awaits information that the Government of the United States would be disposed to accept this mediation . . . or whether it is still of the belief that the same results may be attained by means of direct negotiation by both Governments."

The note concludes with the promise that Carranza will make "all efforts . . . to avoid the recurrence of new incidents which may complicate and aggravate the situation," and with the expression of the hope that the United States will do likewise.

In spite of the pacific turn that events have taken, the mobilization of the militia on the Mexican border is not slackening. Secretary Baker has asked a special appropriation of $1,643,500 to complete the equipment of the National Guard, while Secretary Lansing has asked Congress for an additional appropriation of $300,000 to meet the

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CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Kirby in the New York World

MANUFACTURING CO
TO EMPLOYES WHO ARE MEMBERS OF THE GUARD FULL PAY DURING ABSENCE ON DUTY POSITION OPEN TO YOU ON YOUR RETURN

TWO PATRIOTIC AMERICANS

Weed in the Philadelphia Public Ledger

THE SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIST

Ireland in the Columbus Evening Dispatch

MEXICO HAS NEVER HAD A CHANCE

Starrett in the New York Tribune

THE WEAPONS

THE MEXICAN PROBLEM

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From L'Asino (Rome)

TOWARDS THE ABYSS

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expenses of getting Americans out of Mexico. In the meantime General Pershing has retracted his lines at least fifty miles, pitching his headquarters tents at a point not more than one hundred and fifty miles south of the border. This retraction, as we go to press, is giving rise to new rumors that the complete withdrawal of the American forces in Mexico will occur in the not distant future.

COLLEGE PENSIONS

The system of pensions for college teachers which the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has administered may be abandoned, and in its place another system may be substituted. This, at least, is the proposal issued by the authority of the trustees of the Foundation, though it has not yet been adopted and will not be taken up for action until near the end of the present year. There is no suggestion that in this change there will be any disregard of the expectations of those who have already made their plans, trusting to the continuance of the present system. On the contrary, though the Board of Trustees have the right to change their rules, they announce that "whatever plan is finally adopted will be devised with scrupulous regard to the privileges and expectations which have been created under existing rules."

An extended discussion of the matter is to be found in Bulletin Number Nine of the Carnegie Foundation, entitled "A Comprehensive Plan of Insurance and Annuities for College Teachers." This bulletin is by Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, the President of the Foundation.

When the fund was first established by Mr. Carnegie about ten years ago, there was not so much knowledge of the whole subject of pensions as there is to-day, and there was, moreover, a feeling that the pressing and immediate need was relief for those teachers who had already spent many years in service and who were approaching or had passed the age of disability. The plan then adopted was a system of simple pensions or "retiring allowances." The money provided for these pensions has come without any equivalent provided by the recipients. Of course, in a large way, these recipients have already given to society more than an equivalent, but not in money. In this bulletin Dr. Samuel Johnson's definition of pensions is quoted: "An allowance made to any one without an equivalent. In England it is generally understood to mean pay given to a state hireling for treason to his country." This ironical definition came back to plague Dr. Johnson himself when he became the recipient of a pension from George III; and it illustrates the difference in point of view between those who receive pensions and those who do not. As this bulletin points out, people in America particularly have looked askance upon the acceptance of a pension. This applies, however, solely to that kind of pension which comes in the nature of a gift.

There is another kind of pension which is very different in character and effect. This might more accurately, perhaps, be called an annuity. It consists of money paid annually out of a fund to which the recipient himself has in the past regularly contributed. In some cases the recipient is the only one who contributes; in others, the contributions also come from the recipient's employer; and in some cases also from the State or from some other source. This is the form of pension which the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation are considering as a substitute for the present flat pension system.

THE ADVANTAGES OF ANNUITIES

If those who are about to leave the service of teaching were the only ones to be taken into consideration, the flat pension system, as described above, and as administered by the Carnegie Foundation, would not be as objectionable as it is; but there are great numbers of younger teachers just entering upon the service whose interests must be considered and which are not best served by a flat pension system. In the first place, when the money is paid solely by a Government or other agency, the pensions are so insecure and expensive that the individual cannot trust his future to them. This has been proved by experience. Such pensions are paid out of current funds as a rule, whether they are Government appropriations or appropriations from an endowment fund or from the general income of an institution. To promise such pensions to men just entering upon the field of service is to raise expectations that may not be fulfilled. On the other hand, a system of annuities, definitely provided by annual contributions from the prospective recipient and from other sources, creates a fund which gradually accrues, with accumulated interest, and makes for certainty.

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The fact that the recipient of such a pension or annuity has himself contributed to the fund makes the system a contract which can be enforced. Such a system also does away with the charitable element and emphasizes in its place social justice. The free pension system, moreover, tends to depress salaries, while a contributory pension system or system of annuities tends to maintain them.

It is for two reasons that modern corporations and modern governments have tended to provide relief or pensions for old age. First, it is because it is the wise and economic thing to do; for better service is obtainable from those who have a sense of security for the future than from those who have not. Second, it is because there has been growing in recent years a sense of responsibility on the part of society for the care and relief of dependents; and, in particular, a conscience about those who have lived a life of usefulness and who face distress in old age. Colleges and universities have lagged even behind so-called soulless corporations in this respect.

What the Carnegie Foundation proposes to do is to provide a twofold system. First, a system of insurance against death. Inasmuch as half of those who enter the teaching profession do not reach the age of retirement, every one who enters the teaching profession has as much interest in providing against death as he has in providing against want in old age. Inasmuch as college teachers are a better risk than the average, they ought to be able to get insurance against death on better terms than the average man. So the Carnegie Foundation proposes to provide, first, such a system of insurance; and, second, a system of annuities against want in old age. Such a system as it proposes would provide for annuities to the wife of a teacher after the teacher's death, as well as to the teacher himself. These annuities, like the insurance, would be provided out of a fund to which the insured would contribute part, the college, which is his employer, would contribute part, and the Carnegie Foundation would contribute part. The details of the system are described in some measure in the bulletin which we have named, and, of course, cannot be outlined here. It includes, for instance, two sub-agencies to be controlled by the Foundation—one, a teachers' insurance and annuity association; another, a teachers' savings association. The plan is so worked out that it will not interfere with the migration of teachers from one institution to another.

This plan has been made public only after the suggestion was submitted to the teachers and trustees of the colleges associated with the Foundation for criticism and discussion.

It seems to us that the new plan is altogether in the direction of common sense, wisdom, and justice.

THE NEW REVENUE BILL

The Democratic Administration finds that the various appropriations it has passed in Congress require an increase of something over two hundred million dollars in the annual income of the Government. This huge sum, of course, must be raised by taxation, and the Administration has therefore introduced a new revenue bill into Congress. It provides for a doubling of the ordinary income tax upon individuals and corporations; for a decided increase of the surtax on large incomes, the limit being raised from six to ten per cent; for a Federal inheritance tax; and for a tax on the receipts of munition factories. Aside from its taxing features the bill adopts, in a manner somewhat inconsistent with Democratic tradition, the principle of a protective tariff by putting a duty on dyestuffs for the avowed purpose of nursing an infant industry. This appears to be in direct contravention of the Baltimore platform, which distinctly declared it to be "a fundamental principle of the Democratic party that the Federal Government, under the Constitution, has no right or power to impose tariff duties except for the purpose of revenue."

The bill also further embodies the protective idea in a clause directed against the "dumping" of foreign goods in this market. To be sure, it ostensibly makes "dumping" criminally illegal on the ground that it is in restraint of trade, and so Democratic Congressmen may ease their consciences by asserting that this is not protection, but "trust-busting." A still further tacit recognition of the existence of the protective principle in National finance is found in the fact that the bill provides for the creation of a Tariff Commission.

The Democratic party professes to believe in universal equality, and perpetuates the pernicious class legislation found in the $3,000 clause, which exempts ninety per cent of the American people from paying any

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income tax at all, and endeavors to make up the deficit by taxing a special class of manufacturers, although there are, perhaps, good reasons why an excise tax may justly be laid upon this class. It denounces a protective tariff as unconstitutional, and specifically protects the dye industry.

The bill contains some good features, like the inheritance tax provision, the dyestuff provision, and the Tariff Commission provision. But it also perpetuates some unjust principles of taxation.

MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS FOR 1916

On July 2 the first military training camp of the year to be held at Plattsburg, New York, came to a successful close. In a later issue of The Outlook there will appear an account of this camp and editorial comment upon what has come to be known as the "Plattsburg Idea."

Opportunities to take advantage of the training offered by the Government are this year open to citizens in various sections of the country. The rapid extension of this system of voluntary training is shown by the fact that more than fifteen thousand men have already enrolled for training during the present summer. It is expected that this number will be largely increased as the season progresses. At Plattsburg alone there will be held at least five separate camps. The first of these, as we have said, completed work on July 2; the second camp, for juniors, began work on July 5; the third camp, for seniors, starts on July 12; the fourth and fifth camps, both for seniors, open on August 10 and September 8. The junior camps are open to undergraduates of all colleges and universities, graduates in 1916 of colleges and universities, students in public or private schools who have reached a grade equivalent to that of the senior class of the high school, and graduates of public and private schools who are under twenty-one years of age. The senior division is open to all citizens between the ages of twenty-one and forty-five who are qualified by education or experience to profit by this school of intensive military training. It is of course needless to add that all applicants for enrolment must have the physical stamina to undertake successfully the military duties involved in the work of training.

For the present, at least, those who volunteer for the training must pay their own expenses to and from the camps; must purchase their uniforms, and pay $25 to cover all expenses for food during the training period. A deposit of five dollars is also required to cover loss or injury to the equipment supplied by the Government. Perhaps the money appropriated by the present session of Congress for the traveling expenses of men who attend these camps may be made available later in the summer, but of this there is no certainty.

In addition to the camps at Plattsburg there will be one more encampment at Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia, beginning July 12; three at Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indianapolis, in operation during July, August, and September; one at Fort Douglass, Salt Lake City, which begins August 21; one at American Lake, Washington, beginning on August 14; and one at Monterey, California, beginning on July 10. On July 6 a training camp for boys too young to enter the junior camps already described was opened at Fort Terry, New York. It will continue until August 10.

Complete information concerning any or all of these camps may be secured from the Military Training Camps Association, at 31 Nassau Street, New York City.

THE NEW YORK "SUN"

Mr. Frank A. Munsey, the founder and proprietor of "Munsey's Magazine," has bought the control of the New York "Sun" and has combined with it the New York "Press," which he has owned since 1912. The New York "Sun" is one of the oldest and best-known newspapers in the United States, having been established in 1833. With the name of the "Sun" is always associated the name of Charles A. Dana, one of the most brilliant journalists that America has ever produced. In his early life Mr. Dana belonged to that group of Boston altruists and transcendentalists who founded Brook Farm, which was an attempt to establish a communistic society on a basis of intellectual culture. The failure of Brook Farm converted Mr. Dana from a poetic visionary into a trenchant satirist and practical man of the world. After the Civil War, with which he was connected as Assistant Secretary of War in the Administration of Abraham Lincoln, he purchased the "Sun" in 1868, and controlled it until his death in 1897.

During Mr. Dana's régime the "Sun" was known throughout the country for its shining intellectual ability and its pungent wit. It was truly an independent paper—

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independent, sometimes, in its disregard of the facts when it could make a point by ignoring them. Neither conventions nor personal friendships nor party considerations prevented Mr. Dana from thinking first, last, and all the time of the "Sun"—not, however, as a commercial enterprise, but as a great, highly intelligent, and fear-inspiring newspaper. Under his management the paper became a great school of journalism, and to serve as a member of the "Sun's" staff, even in the most modest capacity, was the ambition of hundreds of newspaper men all over the country. It was pre-eminently a newspaper man's newspaper, and was read and admired by the profession in every State. How good a property the morning "Sun" has been during recent years is something of a question, but the "Evening Sun," established in 1887, has won great financial success through sheer merit. It is one of the best and cleverest evening newspapers in the country, and we are glad to see that Mr. Munsey says that its character is not to be changed or its form modified under his control.

The morning "Sun" has long been a free-lance in the news field. It has not been a member of the Associated Press, but it will now obtain that valuable franchise, for the New York "Press," which Mr. Munsey has now combined with the "Sun," is a member of the Associated Press. Many old readers of the "Sun" will watch that journal with peculiar interest now to see how it is affected by Mr. Munsey's control. It certainly will not become stodgy, like so many of the daily newspapers of the time, but we hope its new proprietor will maintain unimpaired its distinctive and fearless intelligence.

Mr. Munsey is himself a very unusual product of American periodical publishing. The story of his struggle to establish "Munsey's Magazine" is a romance in itself. Out of his success in this enterprise have grown several other periodicals and a chain of newspapers, as well as large wealth accumulated outside the newspaper field. Mr. Munsey was one of the active men in the formation of the Progressive party in 1912, and was also one of the earliest Progressives to return to the Republican fold. He is a man of experimental genius, and many of his experiments have succeeded, some of them very remarkably; but, whatever he does with the physique of the "Sun," we hope he will experiment with its intellect slowly and carefully, for wit, intelligence, and imagination are delicate plants and cannot safely be tampered with. And scores of newspaper offices in this country would sorely miss the wit, intelligence, and imagination of the "Sun" if they should unhappily have to be sacrificed to the commercial pressure which we regret to say is somewhat too dominant in present-day American journalism.

ADVERTISING MEN IN CONVENTION

Between five and six thousand men connected with the business of advertising convened in Philadelphia from Sunday, June 25, to Thursday, June 29. What most impressed those who attended this Convention or saw these men together was their seriousness. They had their times of relaxation, but the majority of the delegates attended the business sessions and gave their greatest attention to the definite discussions of specific problems. Some idea of the extent of these problems may be conveyed by mentioning some group, each of which had its own departmental meeting: advertising agents—that is, those men who plan advertising campaigns and place advertising in various mediums; general advertisers—that is, those who have goods to sell all over the country and who want to get a Nation-wide publicity for them; magazine publishers, including the publishers of both weekly and monthly periodicals; newspaper publishers; direct-by-mail advertisers—that is, merchants who sell their goods through orders received by mail; financial advertisers; directory publishers; poster advertising men; men engaged in the graphic arts—whose presence was an indication of the artistic side of advertising; men interested in church advertising; and a number of other such groups.

As we noted in The Outlook last week, the spirit of those who are engaged in the business of advertising has been steadily raised by the activities of the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World, the name of the organization that held this Convention. This body of men have been effective instruments for increasing, not only truthfulness, honesty, and integrity in advertising, but also in imbuing the business of advertising with the spirit of a profession. This came out again and again in the Convention. For instance, Mr. Kingsbury, the Vice-President of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, dealt with advertising as a system of education, a developer of public opinion, and the responsibility resting upon advertisers that is in-

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volved in that fact. Mr. Edward A. Filene, of the well-known Boston department store of William Filene Sons Company, was another who emphasized in a very concrete way the ethics of the advertiser's calling. The following passage from his address is worth quoting verbatim :

Those papers are most valuable to us as advertisers which resist the pleasure of us advertisers and equally resist the pleasure of any financial interest and try only to serve the common good, for, as the reward of that, they command the confidence of their readers. If we advertisers undermine the confidence of the papers we advertise in, eventually they will cease to be good mediums for us to advertise in. Those which command the most confidence of their readers are, as I have said, the ones that get the best results for us.

It was this spirit that made the Convention significant. The address of President Wilson on Thursday afternoon was, of course, an event that had National attention. It was during that speech that he spoke of himself as in a fighting mood, and laid down certain principles that should guide this country in its dealings with other nations. Some of his statements made then indicated that he had been impressed by recent public opinion. The following sentences were notable as indicating this :

It is one thing to entertain fine principles and another thing to make them work. . . . "America first" means nothing until you translate it in what you do. . . . I believe that, at whatever cost, America should be just to other peoples and treat other peoples as she demands that they should treat her. She has a right to demand that they treat her with justice and respect, and she has a right to insist that they treat her in that fashion; but she cannot, with dignity or self-respect, insist upon that unless she is willing to act in the same fashion toward them. I am ready to fight for that at any cost to myself.

But it was not the President's speech that was the most significant factor in the Convention, important as that was; it was this spirit of serious purpose and of practical idealism which characterized not only the speeches but the definite plans for action to be followed out by the men when they went back to their offices and their work.

THE NEW YORK POLICE CARNIVALS

The versatility of the modern municipal policeman is remarkable, judging by the performances of the New York City police at their two field days held recently on successive Saturdays to "aid widows and orphans of the members of the police force killed in performance of duty." The metropolitan police not only ran and jumped and hurdled on their own feet, but they ran and jumped and hurdled on their horses, and it almost seemed at times that they made their motor cycles leap in the several thrilling races around the track of the Sheepshead Bay Speedway. Then several policemen proved their histrionic ability in dramas that gave their fellow-officers an opportunity to save the made-up "women" in runaway vehicles or to arrest the stage burglars after thrilling struggles. To cap it all there was a stirring sham battle in which a police regiment captured two masked batteries, which made the welkin roar with the detonation of blank shells. And through every intermission in the programme the audience was entertained by bluecoats who sang or whistled through megaphones.

The most interesting events of a programme so full of interest that it held a huge crowd's attention for four hours on two hot afternoons were those spectacles that illustrated the more modern rôles in the repertoire of the city policeman.

Two "cops" dressed as women were rescued from a runaway carriage by two mounted policemen, while a third bluecoat leaned from his saddle and at full speed snatched up the rag "baby" that had fallen from the lurching carriage. The highly trained dogs of the service were shown assisting their masters in making arrests, or even in knocking down and holding a criminal unassisted.

The mounted men of the force showed an equestrian skill worthy of Cossacks in performing the new cavalry formations which the mounted police have adopted. And they came in at the end of the sham battle with a sweeping charge which clinched the victory that the police infantry had already virtually won. The work of the police ambulance corps and of the police matrons in caring for the "wounded" in this battle again showed that New York's police force might be a valuable military adjunct.

NEW YORK'S FOURTH

Six years ago Mayor Gaynor decided to give the people of New York a "safe and sane Fourth." To replace the accustomed joys of burned fingers, blazing homes, and ruined eyes he devised a series of popular and interesting entertainments.

This year the Mayor's "Independence

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Day Committee" has grown to permanent strength, and it arranged an elaborate programme for the day which would make accessible to every citizen a steady performance as varied as a three-ringed circus from morning till night. It districted the city so as to provide "block celebrations" for twenty geographical units, each of which included band concerts, dancing, patriotic addresses, and the "movies." In two hundred public schools Independence Day exercises were held from 10:30 to noon, while song rallies took place out of doors in places ranging from the Bronx to Staten Island.

The day started with a flag-raising at the old block-house in Central Park at 5:30 in the morning, followed by a band concert in the Park at eight o'clock, with speeches and songs. At ten in Union Square there were songs again from workingmen, most of them cloak and suit makers, now on strike. The Declaration of Independence was being read when two of the strikers came late into range of the speaker's voice. As they listened they were evidently puzzled at the words they heard, and one turned to the other and asked if it were a manifesto from the Mexican workers to their American brethren. "No," said his companion, "I think it is an Irish revolutionary document of some kind."

Small wonder that the "Americanization" booth on the edge of the crowd was thronged with people eager for instructions on "How to Become a Citizen." Down at the City Hall Mayor Mitchel made an impassioned and patriotic speech in keeping with the historical pageant "The Signing of the Declaration of Independence," which was presented by the American Historic Preservation Society. At Tammany Hall, on Fourteenth Street, the Society of Tammany met for its annual celebration of food and drink and fiery oratory.

The small boy, although forbidden explosives, was kept happy all day with athletic competitions arranged throughout the city by the Mayor's Independence Day Committee. In thirty-six public parks the youngsters ran races, jumped both broad and high, put the shot, and dashed gayly for 40, 50, or 60 yards. Swimming contests were won and lost, and grown folks strove with children in potato races and obstacle runs. In Chinatown Wing Lee won the one-lap race for boys up to one hundred and ten pounds, while his brother, Non Lee, took second place in the 60-yard dash. In Washington Square little Italian girls drilled and danced the morning away.

In the evening fifteen thousand people went up to the Stadium of City College for an elaborate programme of music, oratory, and tableaux. Madame Gadski sang "The Star-Spangled Banner," while the audience applauded equally "Paul Revere's Ride" and the "Child Labor" pageant. That night all of Thirty-ninth Street between Fifth and Sixth Avenues was turned into a dancing floor for the girls and their friends of the Vacation Association. A large screen was hung on one side of the street and those who would not dance could watch the pictures thrown there until midnight.

Scarce a firecracker was heard in the center of the town, and even the suburban places seemed peaceful compared with other years. Accidents and ambulance calls were reduced to normal. In the evening a display of multicolored lights took the place of fireworks. Huge American flags traced in electric lights seemed to wave from the public buildings, fit symbols of the spirit of vigorous Americanism with which New York marked the day.

AT THE STADIUM

The Slater Act, passed last winter by the New York Legislature, contains this provision:

> After the first day of September, 1916, all boys above the age of sixteen years, and not over the age of nineteen years, except boys exempted by the Commission, shall be given such military training as the Commission may prescribe for periods aggregating not more than three hours in each week, during the school year.

Advocates and opponents of military training in the schools, together with the ten thousand teachers of the National Education Association now in session in New York, were invited by the city's Department of Education to become converted to the new law's aims by a demonstration of physical and military training for school-children in the Stadium of the College of the City of New York on the afternoon of the Fourth of July.

The visiting teachers came in large numbers. They had heard of New York's compulsory military training for boys, and wanted to judge for themselves of its contrast with the physical exercises already accepted in their home schools. The Stadium with its temporary "bleachers" holds twenty

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thousand people. It was half filled by a curious and applauding audience which watched a thousand children and nearly a hundred high school boys throughout the long, bright July afternoon.

First on the field came the youngsters—boys of ten or twelve years, one hundred and forty-four of them—who went through their setting-up exercises with clocklike precision. The girls who followed, except for their bright hair-ribbons and flying pigtails, were dressed and drilled like their brothers. More boys returned to show their skill in gymnastic dancing; Russian folk dances they seemed, done with zest and vim, hand clapping, stamping, and shouting; and the little girls in turn made much the same gestures, footing it more gracefully, if with less vigor. Then they turned to athletic games, such as relay racing, rope skipping, and "ring-'round-the-rosy," all in orderly unison, under the teachers' direction. When the boys took the field again, they went at their sports in deadly earnest; basket-ball, baseball, racing, jumping, and parallel bars kept several hundreds busy in different ways, while their delighted audience applauded each group and signaled again and again their approval.

Soon the band struck into a martial air, the children left the field for the bleachers, and about sixty youths in khaki marched into the arena, their guns on their shoulders, with flag and high school banner in their midst. There were two companies, marching in splendid alignment, for they had been drilling all winter for just such a chance. Each time they swung past the school-children the latter burst into clapping and cheers, which set off applause from the grown-ups on the stone seats of the Stadium. Small doubt where the children's sympathies lay; and if the older people did not clap so loud nor so often as for the athletics, the fault was not with the drilling. Major-General Appleton, of the Seventh Regiment, N.G.N.Y., reviewed the young soldiers and found them excellent. The boys wheeled and deployed and responded to "Carry 'umps" and "Port 'umps" as well as the best of militiamen. National Guard regiments recruiting for new members would have been glad enough to get them.

When it was all over and the teachers and parents and plain citizens were pouring from the Stadium, an attempt was made to get the opinion of the onlookers. The conclusions of parents and teachers were distinctly divided, foreshadowing dissension next autumn, when the new law goes into effect. The verdict of the majority of the teachers present apparently was summed up in the remark one of them made to his companion: "There's no such spontaneity in military drill as in athletics. You miss the sport spirit. It's no fun." The parents and other onlookers evidently felt differently, and were not thinking of "fun" alone.

In respect to the observance of this new law the Commissioner of Education, John H. Finley, has issued a circular to the Boards of Education and City and Village Superintendents. He points out that it will be incumbent upon every city to employ full-time physical instructors, and every village having a superintendent to employ a full-time instructor, and districts outside these to employ part-time instructors, or combine to employ full-time instructors. He discusses the question of getting qualified teachers, and announces that it will not be possible to make definite prescription of courses until the latter part of the summer.

STARVING ON ELEPHANT ISLAND

In our pictorial section this week will be found a strangely impressionistic photograph of the Antarctic explorer Sir Ernest Shackleton alone in the ice-fields. A few months ago The Outlook told of what it called "The Strange Plight of the Shackleton Expedition." The latter part of the story, then unknown, makes it still more strange and deepens one's recognition of the many kinds of deadly dangers which surround the polar adventurers.

It will be remembered that the plan of the Shackleton expedition was that Sir Ernest in his ship Endurance should land on the Antarctic continent somewhere on the coast of the Weddell Sea, while his other ship, the Aurora, under Captain McIntosh, should land on the opposite side of the Antarctic continent at Ross Sea. Both landings were made. The plan was that the Aurora's crew should stay where they were until the Shackleton party either made their way across the continent, perhaps actually reaching the South Pole midway (although that was not an essential design), or, should this fail, until the Endurance should skirt the continent and reach Ross Sea. But disaster attacked both parties, and in a most unexpected way. First,

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the Aurora was suddenly caught in a pack of ice and borne out to sea, leaving part of her crew on shore. She could not break away from the ice, was carried hundreds of miles away, and finally, in a seriously damaged condition, reached islands near New Zealand. At first it was thought that the Aurora's men on shore would starve unless Sir Ernest reached them, but later it was said that they had some provisions, and it is hoped that a relief ship which has been despatched to their aid will reach them.

But what of Shackleton and the Endurance? The attempt to cross the continent was abandoned. The Endurance put to sea, was battered by great icebergs, crushed by ice-fields, tossed and strained beyond endurance. The crew was forced to abandon her and to take to the ice, dragging their small boats with them. They nearly starved; they were nearly frozen. At last, after unprecedented struggles and sufferings, they reached Elephant Island, three hundred and forty-six miles away from the spot where they abandoned the ship. When the story of this journey across the ice is told, it must certainly be one of the most thrilling of the many stirring tales of polar adventure.

To reach Elephant Island was not to reach civilization. No ship was likely to find its glacial shores. Food for the twenty-two men of the party had fortunately been saved in considerable quantity, and they could kill penguins to eke out their rations. But, looking at the future of months and possibly years before them, their case was desperate. Shackleton believed the only chance was to open communication with inhabited islands. He therefore set out in a small boat with five volunteers, hoping to reach South Georgia, seven hundred and fifty miles away. The start was made on April 24 of this year amid blizzards and high seas. Almost miraculously, the attempt succeeded. Shackleton reached land on May 15. Soon after a little whaler (eighty tons only) started south for Elephant Island. This relief expedition failed utterly. The whaler was too small to fight the terrible ice and weather conditions. Then Sir Ernest himself organized a second relief expedition, and this in turn failed, as has quite recently been told in cabled despatches from Port Stanley, in the Falkland Islands, in which port the relief vessel was forced to take refuge. That Shackleton did everything in his power no one can doubt who reads the despatches. He still hopes—almost against hope—that his comrades on Elephant Island may be reached and that their desperate condition may not end in their starvation and physical collapse.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

For the first time in half a century the annual meeting of the National Education Association is, as we go to press, holding its sessions in New York City. It is the fifty-fourth convention of this kind that has been held. The influence of these meetings is beyond question. They have long been recognized as a positive factor in the development of the Nation's mental resources. Not far from fifty thousand teachers, college professors, heads of educational institutions, and Federal and State officials are in attendance. A programme of varied character is being carried out; the division of the conference into sections scientifically classified and planned will multiply the opportunities for serious practical work. Addresses by men eminent in civil and political life as well as by educators strictly so called are arranged for profusely. Madison Square Garden at the opening session held a vast audience of a notably high quality collectively and individually. The subject of the address by David Bancroft Johnson, President of the National Education Association, was the dependence of the welfare of the rural home upon the education of the farm woman and the conservation of her health and strength. The speaker urged the appointment of a National commission to study the farm home and the farm woman.

Next week The Outlook will comment upon and report important features of the meeting.

SOME FACTS ABOUT TUBERCULOSIS

The bulletins of the Public Health Service are not the least valuable among the important documents that the Government publishes for the benefit of its citizens. A bulletin on "Tuberculosis among Industrial Workers," recently published, is full of illumination. This embodies the results of investigations made by Surgeon D. E. Robinson and Assistant Surgeon J. G. Wilson, of the Public Health Service, with special reference to the relation of poverty, city crowding, occupational diseases, and immigration to the

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tuberculosis death rate in the city of Cincinnati. The report has National interest, for of course conditions in other large American cities are in many points similar to conditions in Cincinnati.

The investigators found that approximately one-sixth of all tuberculosis cases in that city develop in cheap lodging-houses, and that one-fifth are directly traceable to the risks of special occupational industries and to bad working conditions. "The great factor underlying the entire problem," say the investigators, "is seemingly that of economic conditions."

In general, cities that have a large recent immigration population are freer from tuberculosis than cities in which the predominating racial stock has been longer in this country. Other things being equal, a city with a good transportation system will be less afflicted by the great white plague than a city with bad transportation.

One of the most interesting of the many significant findings reported in the bulletin has to do with the varying susceptibility to tuberculosis of the various foreign nationalities that make up our immigrant population.

"Almost without exception, cities with a higher percentage of Irish, Scandinavian, and German stock, and those in which the Negro population is relatively large, have a correspondingly high mortality, while those where the Italian and Jewish element is proportionately great have a low tuberculosis death rate."

Of course the chief reason for the low Italian death rate in this country is that when the Italian contracts tuberculosis he returns to Italy and dies in his native land. The low death rate among Jews is explained on the ground of inherited racial resistance to the ravages of the disease. Although they contract tuberculosis as readily as others, they seem better able to overcome its evil effects. The Negro, on the contrary, represents a race which has not yet acquired any great amount of resistance to the disease. Added to this low racial resistance of the Negroes is the potent factor of poor standards of living which prevail among them. Indeed, in view of the close relationship between the tuberculosis death rate and economic conditions which the bulletin reports, is it not possible that different standards of living may in part account for the high or low death rate in all the races?

THE REAL ISSUE

Political platforms are only nets to catch voters. The real issue between the Democratic and Republican parties is determined not by their platforms but by their history.

What is that history?

Since the formation of the Constitution the United States has made great progress toward a strong centralized government. No one now sustains Calhoun's doctrine that a State may determine that a Federal law is unconstitutional and refuse obedience to it; or regards the union of the States as a Roman marriage, dissolvable at the pleasure of either of the parties; or doubts the power of the Federal Government to order and pay for public improvements out of the public treasury. The growth of railway corporations has brought the entire transportation system of the country under the control of the Federal Government, and, taking advantage of this fact, the Federal Government has passed laws against child labor and food adulteration. It is now even proposed to enact women's suffrage and prohibit the liquor traffic by Federal enactment. The changes in the written Constitution have been slight; the changes in the actual Constitution have been enormous.

This movement has divided the Nation into two parties, the one urging forward, the other resisting, this movement toward a centralized National authority. It has been forwarded by the Federal, Whig, and Republican parties; resisted by the Democratic party. But as public opinion and changing conditions have compelled increase in central authority the Democratic party has reluctantly accepted, while the Republican party has cordially welcomed, these changes. Thus in our own time:

The fear of central authority led the Democratic party four years ago to pledge itself to the ineligibility of the President for a second term; to condemn as unconstitutional a tariff for any purpose but revenue; to urge as a cure for monopoly the disorganization of big business and the re-establishment of competition; to oppose as a dangerous innovation the creation of commissions for Governmental purposes; to condemn "the so-called Aldrich Bill or the establishment of a central bank." It has since unanimously nominated the President for a second term, called for a tariff commission to protect

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American industries, praised the Democratic party for its establishment of a Federal Trade Commission to aid in the encouragement of legitimate industry, and adopted the Aldrich Bill for the regulation of National banking, though in a form radically changed and, in our judgment, greatly improved by bringing that system more directly under the control of the Federal power. In all these cases it has accepted, though apparently with reluctance, the principle of centralized authority toward which for over a century and a quarter the United States has been steadily and irresistibly moving.

This issue of centralization *versus* decentralization is the real issue involved in two pressing questions to be decided by the American people this fall:

What are America's duties toward other nations?

What preparation ought America to make to fulfill these duties?

On these questions the views of both the political parties are well defined by their past history and their fundamental views respecting the nature of the Federal Government.

The Republican party, by its war for the emancipation of Cuba, by its establishment of a protectorate over Cuba and the Philippines, by its mediation to promote peace between Japan and Russia, by its participation in the Algeciras Conference, by the active part played in the two Hague Conferences, has made clear its faith that the United States is a world power and ought to take its share in the promotion of the world's welfare. It was therefore inevitable that Republican leaders should insist on America's duty to protest against the violation of Belgium's neutrality; to take vigorous measures for the protection of the rights of neutrals upon the ocean; to be ready to protect alike Americans, foreigners, and Mexicans in Mexico; to be ready to unite with other civilized nations in an international league for a world peace. Such a foreign policy necessitates a strong centralized government, and the Republican party does not fear a strong centralized government.

But the Democratic party does. It is therefore natural that the Democratic party should have opposed the establishment of a protectorate in the Philippines, should have opposed our participation in the Algeciras Conference, should think it not our business to concern ourselves with the European war, or interest ourselves for the protection of Belgium, or run the risk of conflict by protecting the rights of neutrals on the ocean, and should consider the protection of life and property in Mexico none of our business.

It is also natural that the Democratic party should dread any increase in the land and naval forces under the control of the Federal Government, should condemn the demand for preparedness as nervous and excited, and should even now trust for the protection of the Nation, not on forces organized and controlled by the Nation, but on a militia organized and officered by the States.

And it is equally natural that the Republican party should have developed a powerful navy, should have sent it around the world to inspire it with consciousness of its own strength and to give to the world a respect for it; natural also that the Republican party should stand for universal military training, and that the Nation which governs itself and educates itself should be prepared also, not only to defend itself, but to take its part in preserving peace and order and in promoting humanity, justice, and liberty throughout the world.

We endeavor here only to describe tendencies, not to criticise nor to advocate them. But our temperament and our reading of our country's history combine to form in us the well-settled conviction that the welfare of America demands a strong Central Government, directly responsible to the people, and equipped with power to fulfill all the duties of government both toward its own citizens and toward the whole world.

A TRIBAL WAR

A war is being waged in the city of New York between the cloak and suit makers and their employers. The substantial facts are given by a trustworthy correspondent on another page. We wish here to call attention to the fundamental issue involved and to the grave blow aimed at American democracy by the instigators of the war.

IS THE ISSUE TRADE-UNIONISM?

The employers claim that they are fighting to free the American business man from the despotism of trade-unionism; the strikers, that they are fighting to free the American workingman from the tyranny that imposes low wages, long hours, and wretched living conditions. To a certain extent both sides are right in these two claims. Trade unions

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have often been despotic, greedy, selfish, and sometimes vicious and criminal. Individual capitalists have often sincerely tried to treat their workmen with paternal benevolence only to be met by distrust and suspicion. Trade union leaders are human beings, and therefore, like all human beings, are often grasping, irritating, and pugnacious.

Nevertheless, the fundamental issue of the cloak-makers' strike or lockout is not trade-unionism. If it were, the case of the employers would be hopeless. For the basic principles of trade-unionism—collective bargaining and labor solidarity—have come to stay. They will last as long as the present industrial structure of American society lasts. No fair-minded student of economic history can deny that modern trade-unionism during its active history of about one hundred years has greatly improved the well-being and intelligence of the workingman. And many fair-minded capitalists admit that trade-unionism, with its collective bargaining, group development, and legislative reforms, has greatly increased the efficiency of the laboring man, and has therefore been a direct benefit to capital. The individual employers or groups of employers who think that they can destroy trade-unionism are simply attempting to sweep back the irresistible tide of history.

ARBITRATION THE REAL ISSUE

Just as nationalism is to-day being carried on upon a war basis in Europe, so is industry being carried on upon a war basis in the United States. There are longer or shorter periods of peace, there is now and then an armistice, but war is constantly breaking out here and there—war in the anthracite coal fields; war in the mining districts of Colorado; war in the cotton mills of Lawrence, Massachusetts; war on the street railways of Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania. The world is beginning slowly to learn that war, the tribal method of settling disputes, is archaic, destructive, and accomplishes little of permanent value. When Germany is taught by sad experience that tribal development by the sword will not fit into the scheme of modern civilization, Europe will turn, is already beginning to turn, to international arbitration. Under some system of arbitration, probably compulsory, each nation will carry on its own development and prosperity to the utmost limit that is consistent with the welfare of human society. But treaties of arbitration will no longer be regarded as "scraps of paper."

So in American industry groups of laborers and groups of capitalists must find some method other than that of tribal warfare to settle their disputes.

Now the grand importance of the cloak and suit war in New York is that it is being fought to determine whether tribal power or arbitration shall be the method adopted for the settlement of labor conflicts. In the present strike the employers are for tribal power, the workmen are for arbitration. This is the issue. Everything else is incidental.

In July, 1915, the cloak employers and the cloak workers after arbitration entered into an agreement or protocol to last two years. The employers have now broken this agreement, have treated it as a "scrap of paper," have locked out their men, and officially admit that they have done so because the Council of Conciliation, an integral feature of the agreement, had decided against their interests. They have even refused a new arbitration proposed by the Mayor and various civic bodies. They say:

> We sought to avert the loss of time and money by closing our shops at a time when we might be able to adjust conditions during the slack season. The issues were the preferential union shop and the right of hire and discharge of workingmen. The concession of these demands to meet the views of the union would entirely destroy the efficiency in the shops and turn over their control to the officials of the union.

They are mistaken as to the issues. The issue is not whether the trade union shall control. It is whether the principle of arbitration and conciliation, the only instrument that has ever been discovered to be efficacious in tribal industrial wars, shall be abandoned or adhered to.

A FATAL BLOW

If the employers win, if they succeed in thwarting or destroying a steady growth of the idea of arbitration in industrial disputes, they will have struck a blow not only at American institutions but at their own interests. The great public does not want industrial wars. If these wars cannot be abolished under an economic system of private property, the public will abolish private property and try State Socialism. If the cloak and suit employers only knew it, they are now in the act of choosing between industrial regulation of private property and Government abolition of private property. They

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say in their official statement that they are fighting "against the ambitious union leaders of a Socialistic, anarchistic, and political union." Their own anarchy manifested in the breaking of the protocol has made them as effective agents of State Socialism as we have in the community.

GERMAN INEFFICIENCY!

No nation can long be called efficient which fails to advance the general life of humanity. As the war drags on, with its ever-increasing wake of ruin and irreparable loss, Germany is fast losing her "place in the sun," and stands as the "horrible example" of utter failure along the avenues of real world service. That she is powerful none can deny; but that her strength is of the eternal type is daily becoming more doubtful. In a sense she has been efficient, but for fundamentally wrong purposes; and, unless the unexpected happens, she is bound to undermine her own foundations and find herself less respected and both morally and physically weaker than before the conquest of Alsace-Lorraine.

The war has progressed sufficiently far for one to turn the light of truth on German efficiency in the actual field of battle. Where is her boasted superiority? Most people think she has done surprisingly well as a fighting unit. The facts warrant an entirely different conclusion. Boasting of a marvelous secret service, and apparently prepared for a world war, she can never again be called efficient in the face of her gross underestimation of brave little Belgium. Apparently expecting a triumphal march through Belgium and a speedy attack in force at the most vulnerable spot in France, this great "machine" was held up a fortnight by the despised Belgians, giving France and her allies an opportunity to marshal their strength and prepare for the conflict. Had Germany foreseen the immense strength of the Belgian national spirit, it is almost certain that she would not have struck when she did. Surely such short-sightedness can never be called "efficiency"!

What was Germany doing when she failed to understand the tremendous moral and physical resources of the French nation? Living near neighbor to France for centuries, besides having innumerable spies throughout her enemy's territory, Germany apparently only counted fortifications and noses. Her philosophy was a wild confidence in steel and liquid fire, and she clearly disparaged the greatest military asset of the world—the morale of any people. No doubt German military leaders expected a short, sharp conflict, and then a victorious peace. Behind her siege guns she fired shot and shell into the invisible, indefinable, and indestructible soul of France, and wondered that the war lasted so long! She had left this major war fact out of her calculations, and then attempted the conquest of soul with Krupp guns and poisonous gas!

Think of Germany's blindness with regard to England. Great Britain had been the butt of German jokes for forty years. According to Prussia, she was slow and notoriously lacking in dash and enterprise. But, slowly awaking out of her lethargy, she now holds with bulldog tenacity one hundred and fifty miles of French trenches, and is growing stronger every day. Her colonies, contrary to the German calculation, are absolutely loyal to her, and though revolt was actually allowed to break out in Ireland, the Nationalists, to the chagrin of Germany, with no uncertain sound, have stood firmly and fought bravely against Britain's foes. Germany failed to understand the temper of England. The two countries are entirely different in spirit, and Prussia apparently looked only on the materialistic side of Britain's defenses, and failed to estimate the wonderful loyalty which prevailed throughout the British Empire. Unaccustomed to free speech at home, Germany could not comprehend how a liberty-loving people could freely criticise their Government and by strikes and labor disputes jeopardize the national life, and yet remain perfectly loyal and enthusiastically British. What can be said of the diplomacy which at the beginning of the war could suggest that England might easily stand aside while Germany settled her account with France and Russia? There are few blunders the world over so colossal as the failure of the Teutonic Powers to estimate the strength of English patriotism and love of fair play which lay ready to be called to arms as soon as any foe would seek to strike a blow against democracy or the right of a people, though small, to govern themselves.

Germany thought she understood India. She found that country seething with revolt. All the world had been made to believe that

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there was unrest there. Britain has never been able or anxious to curb criticism, and in Hyde Park, near to the doors of Buckingham Palace, every kind of religious and political heresy is permitted freely to open its mouth. The unrest in India had in like manner been allowed to find voice, and Germany undoubtedly thought that through her secret agencies she could ferment enough trouble in India to keep England busy should war be declared. Here again her view-point was faulty—she saw the facts in wrong juxtaposition. Unrest and criticism did not mean all that Germany thought they meant. She noted the foam caused by the breakers of free speech, and failed absolutely to understand the strong foundations upon which British institutions and Indian loyalty rest. A state of mind incapable of comprehending the spirit of the British colonies ought not to be called efficient. A philosophy which undervalues the war strength stored up in loyalty and which acts as though sentiment and honor have no military value is proved false by the test of facts, and forever discredits the German point of view.

Possibly the greatest blunder Germany has made in the actual conduct of the war has been her alliance with Turkey. She gained strength in numbers when she admitted the Turkish Empire into partnership. Such an alliance strengthened the German war plan, brought much needed food into Germany, and prolonged the war indefinitely. But can Germany ever recover from the stain of the Armenian atrocities? The good will of the world was of more value than a dozen Turkish Empires. If Germany expected the call to the Holy War to succeed, what a terrible apostasy for a Christian nation! and what a delusion! If, on the other hand, she thought the call to the Holy War would fail, then she deliberately played with the most dangerous fire the world has ever known. No one knew what might have been the result, and for the sake of victory Germany was willing to take the risk of touching the Mohammedan barrel of gunpowder with the fuse of a Holy War. Whatever was expected to happen, the fact remains that Mohammedan is fighting Mohammedan, a thing not thought possible in the scheme of German efficiency.

As a fighting machine the German army has not lived up to its reputation. What would have happened if the Allies had been prepared for war? Outnumbered as they were, lacking ammunition, short of big guns, and with only green reserves to take the field, what a wonderful showing they made and are still making! The men of fifty years ago in this Nation remember how long it took the North to raise a fighting army and discover winning generals. Think, then, of the superb showing of the Allies in defending themselves from an enemy that was armed to the teeth! Germany expected to win the war a year ago. The idea was magnificent, but it failed. In spite of its preparedness, the much-boasted German army is really being held at bay by nations who at the beginning of the conflict were not prepared for war. If an amateur boxer can obtain an even draw against a much-heralded champion, who at the ringside would call the encounter a victory for efficiency?

What has Germany accomplished by her policy of "frightfulness"? Undoubtedly she has gained many miles of trenches by the use of poisonous gas. Without question liquid fire has accomplished like results. Perhaps the burning of Louvain was a lesson the world will never forget. Much destruction has resulted from the use of Zeppelins, an occasional chance shot having destroyed a soldier's life, wrecked a railway, or hit a munition factory. But from a military point of view the results cannot be said to justify the means. The Lusitania was a splendid prize, and the destruction of much ammunition had a value. But will not the cry of horror which escaped the lips of the civilized world forever offset every advantage gained by such a frightful policy? Of course, if might is right, then the more terrible the might, the more glorious the right. But on the grounds of efficiency alone such a policy is calculated to kill the goose that lays the golden egg. The world has progressed too far for such a policy to succeed.

Germany has sought for world leadership and has sadly failed at the very door of success. Had her leadership been for good will and international co-operation, she could have played her part, and played it well. But she asked for the throne of Hannibal and Cæsar; and in her blundering inefficiency she did not realize that those thrones are reserved for the dead. She has borne and trained her children, not for life, but for death on the fields of battle. For generations her people will be loaded with huge war debts, and because of her militarism all the world will have to carry a share of the staggering load.

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HUMOR AND PATHOS OF THE WAR IN ENGLAND

ALTHOUGH the English, with characteristic tenacity, are doing their fighting in true British bulldog spirit, they have time to appreciate the humor and pathos of the war. If war were all tragedy, mankind would go mad. Pure tragegy has nothing to relieve it. But pathos often has mingled with it an element of humor. Sympathy is a smiling virtue, pity a tearful one; and even in war the world longs to smile.

Perhaps that is the reason why, when a friend showed us recently some war letters which had been sent to him by an English correspondent, we asked permission to pass them along to our readers.

The first batch of letters is purely humorous, tinged but slightly, if at all, by a faint coloring of the pathos of ignorance. They are extracts from the correspondence received by the secretary of a bureau which, under the National Insurance Act of Great Britain, has charge of assigning the "maternity benefits" given to the wives of enlisted workingmen:

Dear Sir:
According to instructions on paper I have given birth to a daughter on April 21st.

Dear Sir:
I am expecting to be confined next month and will you please tell me what to do about it.

Dear Sir:
We received your letter. I am his grandfather and his grandmother. He was born and brought up in this house in answer to your letter.

Respected Sir, Dear Sir,
Though I take the liberty as it leaves me at present I beg to ask if you will be good enough to let me know where is my husbin. Though he is not my legeble husbin as he has got a wife though he says she is dead but I do not think he knows for sure but we are not married though I am getting my allotment reglar which is not fault of Mr. Lloyd George who would stop it if he could and MR. Makena but if you know where he is as he belongs to the Royal Fling [Flying] Corps for ever since he joined in January when he was sacked from his work for talking back to his boss which was a woman at laundry where he worked. I have not had any money from him since he joined though he told Mrs. Jones what lives on the ground floor that he was a pretty ossifer [petty officer] for six shillings a week and plenty of underclothes for bad weather and I have three children what he has been the father of them. Hoping you will write to me soon and you are quite well as it leaves me at present I must close now hoping you are quite well.

Dear Sir:
My husband has been away three weeks at the Crystal Police [Palace] and got four days furlong [furlough] and has now gone back to the mind sweeper.

If the work of the mine-sweepers in the English Channel and the North Sea could only result in the invention of a "mind sweeper"! Many a man would like to have his mind swept clear at times of regrets for the past and anxieties for the future. After all, is there not a very effective mind sweeper? Is not the nearest duty simply done, with its consequences accepted whatever they may be, a natural and telling way by which to clarify and oxidize the atmosphere of the mind? The writer of the following letter has a well-swept, antiseptic, sun-lighted, and breeze-freshened mind. He is a younger partner in a long-established and well-known British firm of large interests, and is writing to one of his colleagues in the business:

My dear D——:
I have been meaning to write to you for a long time, but somehow never did it. I suppose you got the letter I wrote to you at S——.

Well, we are a couple of almighty cripples now, and shall have to start a tuberculosis and new limb home. The Hun, not satisfied with compound fracturing my left arm, gangrened my left leg at the same time, with the result it had to come off above the knee. However, don't waste sympathy on me, as I am busy thanking Heaven I am still alive, and, taking things all round, prospects aren't so glum.

I can still do my work easy enough, play billiards, and I fancy I shall be able to wangle up a sort of golf game with the aid of a couple of sticks and a clear course. Hand-controlled motor cars, and in fact most things, can be coped with, bar tennis. My! and sha'n't I get fat!

Had a wonderful escape, as a 5.9 burst right up against me. Hope to be back in England in about ten days or so, and as these things are so

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satisfactorily done have no doubt that I shall be placed in a private hospital, say in the Shetlands, nice and handy for every one. Personally should prefer to go to a real hospital, and not to Lady V. de V.'s private house, as, for the next few weeks, I shall be much too much out of action to appreciate amateurs.

Don't tell B—— [his wife] too much, as I have left it at the arm at present, and she can find out about the leg when I am back in England, as she will only worry if she knows too much.

Cheer oh! and I trust that at an early date we shall be bringing our united massive brains to bear on the problem of X. Y. & Co.

Hope you are as fit as a fiddle now.

Yours, BILL.

Don't answer this, as I shall be on the move.

With all its horrors, the war has had a fine side. It has revealed to the world, not merely the courage and self-sacrifice of man in action, but his capacity for turning pathos into humor, tears into laughter, and disaster into a stepping-stone towards new achievements and a new zest for life.

INFANTILE PARALYSIS

WHAT may be one of the most serious epidemics in the recent history of the city is threatening New York. It is the contagious disease known as infantile paralysis, or, in scientific nomenclature, acute anterior poliomyelitis.

The cause of the disease is an exceedingly minute organism. This is supposed to find its first entrance into the body through the mucous membranes of the nose and throat, although there are no signs of sore throat to indicate that the germ is there. The disease acts upon the spinal nerves, and thus causes the paralysis from which the disease gets its name. The degree of the paralysis varies very greatly, and the results of the disease can be alleviated in many cases by proper treatment.

Just how the disease is conveyed is not definitely established. It is probably chiefly spread by those persons who are so mildly ill that they are unrecognized and by "carriers." The term "carriers" is applied to those persons who, though they are themselves not ill, harbor the disease germs. For instance, diphtheria may be transmitted by a person having virulent diphtheria bacilli in the throat, though the person himself may be perfectly well. This is different from a person so mildly ill with diphtheria that it is not recognized. Both classes of cases are dangerous to others. The person who is ill with infantile paralysis, but so mildly ill that the disease is unrecognized, and the person who carries the disease germs, though he may not be ill himself, are both the means of spreading the disease to others.

To this disease adults are not immune, but children are especially susceptible. The older the child, the less susceptible he is. The fact that a child is generally well is no protection. Though there are diseases which have a larger proportion of fatal cases, the effects of poliomyelitis, or infantile paralysis, are sometimes more to be dreaded than death. A very large percentage are crippled or in some degree injured for life, and many of those who survive are rendered helpless.

To combat such a disease as this it is necessary that the public should know what to do. Doctors and nurses alone cannot check it.

During such an epidemic children should be kept away from all public gatherings—such as moving-picture shows, Sunday-school, entertainments, and crowded trolley cars and other conveyances. So far it has not been deemed necessary to close the recreation piers, because children must have some place to play in the crowded sections of the great city. Those parents who can take their children away from the locality in which the epidemic exists and into the country should do so; but there are thousands upon thousands who cannot. These parents can help to protect their own children and to protect the community by keeping their children away from public gatherings and by restricting their play as far as possible to open parks and other places where children are not confined indoors and which they can reach without going in crowded conveyances. They can help, too, by watching their own children and seeing that any one child that shows signs of illness is at once isolated and a doctor called in. This applies not merely to New York, of course, but to other communities to which the disease may spread. In any household where there is such a case gargles and sprays should be used to help prevent infection, and compliance in every

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point should be made with the medical requirements.

The Board of Health of New York is making a great effort to discover all cases and to secure isolation for those who are discovered to be ill. The staff of nurses and doctors of the Board of Health is being increased by special appropriations. The first duty of citizens in this exigency is to comply promptly and thoroughly with the rules of the Board of Health, and in every possible way to co-operate with its officers.

THE NEW YORK CITY JUNIOR POLICE

AS The Outlook has already noted, the work of Arthur Woods, the present Police Commissioner of New York City, has been that of prevention rather than of punishment.

As he looks about, the Commissioner notes immense and unrestful districts. They seem almost over-populated by children. In those children one sees, not only the New York of to-day, but the New York of to-morrow, law-abiding or not law-abiding. How can it be made law-abiding? By instilling, as soon as possible and as far as possible, a respect for law and order in the minds and hearts of the children of the city. To this end the symbol of law and order must be specially prominent in those districts in which disturbances might otherwise be expected.

Commissioner Woods recognizes in the child the first and primal factor in good government. Children go wrong not because they are inherently bad; they are not. They are bad—at least they are unruly—generally through no fault of their own. They go wrong chiefly because their attention is not absorbed by the good.

In pursuance of his work of prevention Mr. Woods has been seeking to supply these boys with enough recreation, instruction, and employment to occupy, if possible, all their spare time. Above all, he is trying to develop in them a feeling of responsibility.

First he attempted to absorb their attention by play. For instance, in co-operation with others, he obtained the use of vacant lots so that boys might have their baseball there. But there are crowded sections of the city where no vacant lots are available. Hence, together with the Parks and Playgrounds Association and the People's Institute, Mr. Woods has striven to have certain streets closed to traffic a few hours each day, in order that they may be given up to games.

In the second place, he attempted to absorb the attention of young lads by work—and in the work he knew best, that of the police. Together with his police officers, the Commissioner collected some willing boys from eleven to fifteen years old, mostly from the East Side. He organized them into a force of Junior Policemen. Assisted by citizens of their districts, they bought suits, caps, and badges something like those worn by members of the "grown-up" force. The badges are of nickel and cost fifteen cents apiece. They are not worn on the outside of the boys' coats except at meetings and drills, and no Junior Policeman may "sport" a badge except after reciting and swearing to the Pledge, Motto, and Duties while standing at attention before the precinct leader.

The Pledge, the Motto, and the Duties above mentioned constitute what might be called a boys' Magna Charta of good American citizenship. The Pledge reads as follows:

THE JUNIOR POLICE

CITY OF NEW YORK

PLEDGE

I promise on my honor:

1. To do my duty to God and my Country and to obey the Law.
2. To obey the Motto and the Rules and the Regulations of the Junior Police Force of the City of New York.
3. To keep and never to misuse my Junior Police Badge, and to surrender it upon demand to the Chief of the Force.

MOTTO

Be Trustworthy — Be Polite
Be Honest — Be Helpful
Be Loyal — Be Obedient
Be Brave

DUTIES

1. Use clean and decent language at home, in the school, and in all public places.
2. Never hitch on wagons or street cars.
3. Always cross the street at the corners, and never in the middle of the block.
4. Do not build bonfires in the street.

(*Continued on page following illustrations*)

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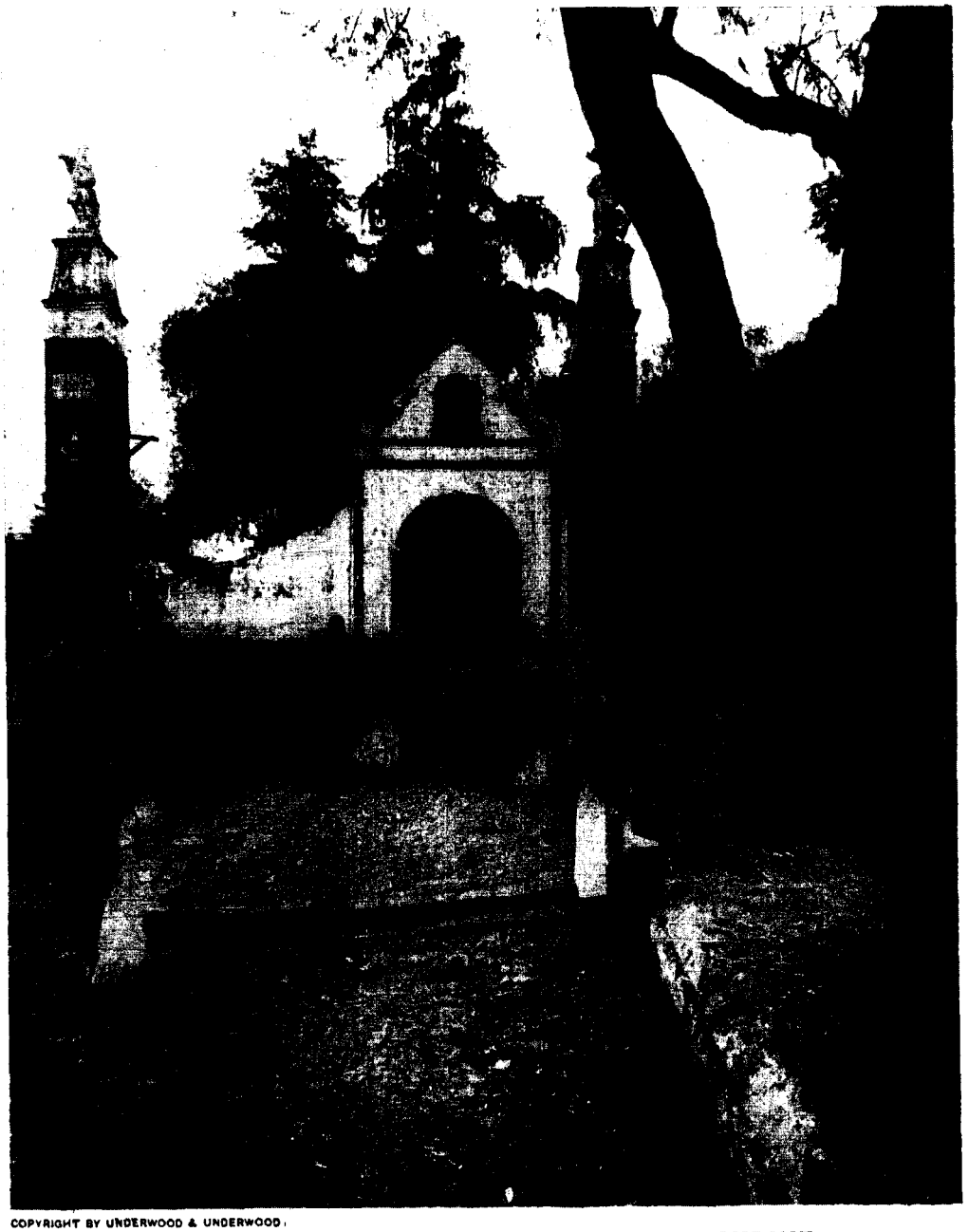
Current Events Pictorially Treated

THE OUTLOOK, JULY 12, 1916



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OUR NEIGHBORS IN MEXICO—AN INDIAN SHRINE

In 1524 twelve Franciscan friars (called the Twelve Apostles of Mexico) came from Spain to introduce Christianity among the Mexicans. To one of them, Fray Martin de Valencia, the Indians became greatly attached, and his burial place at Amecameca, shown above, has for centuries been a place of pilgrimage for them. Amecameca is the starting-point for the ascent of Popocatepetl—see next page

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OUR NEIGHBORS IN MEXICO—ONE OF THEIR MAGNIFICENT MOUNTAINS

The view is of Popocatepetl, one of the highest mountains in America. It rises nearly two miles above the Valley of Mexico, and is 17,794 feet above the sea. It is a quiescent volcano, the last eruption having occurred in 1802. The view from its summit is said to be indescribably grand. Note the characteristic costumes of the Mexicans in the foreground

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OUR NEIGHBORS IN MEXICO—ONE OF THEIR ARCHITECTURAL TRIUMPHS

The Cathedral of Mexico City, shown above, is one of the oldest as well as one of the largest churches on the Continent. Its corner-stone was laid in 1573; it was not completed till 1791. "Few will deny," says a competent critic, "that it is worthy to be ranked among the noblest churches of America"

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MOTHER AND CHILD—A PHOTOGRAPH

The picture is that of Mrs. Francis B. Sayre, formerly Miss Jessie Wilson (daughter of President Wilson), and her oldest child, Francis Wilson Sayre. See the picture on the opposite page

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM DORR FEATURE SERVICE

MOTHER AND CHILD—A PAINTING

This picture, by the well-known artist Charles W. Hawthorne, is a recent acquisition of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The juxtaposition of the pictures on this and the foregoing page will indicate how well the modern art of the camera compares with the art of the painter's brush

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PHOTOGRAPH BY MARY CARNELL

HOMES OF YESTERDAY—A PINHOLE PHOTOGRAPH

The picture on this page was made with a lensless camera. Many people suppose that a good photograph means the use of an expensive lens. "What a fine lens you must have!" they say when the amateur exhibits an attractive photograph. But an artistic photograph may be made without any lens—simply by admitting the light to the plate through a minute hole in a piece of cardboard in the place of the lens. The above picture shows the possibilities of this substitute for a lens. See page [illegible] for an example of photographic work done with a lens

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PHOTOGRAPH BY MARY CARNELL

THE POOL—A PHOTOGRAPH MADE WITH A LENS

Compare this picture with that on the preceding page, which was made with a pinhole instead of a lens. The one on this page, it will be noticed, differs mainly in the sharpness of definition. In that quality, and in speed, the lens is superior; many will consider the pinhole photograph superior in the artistic rendering of its subject

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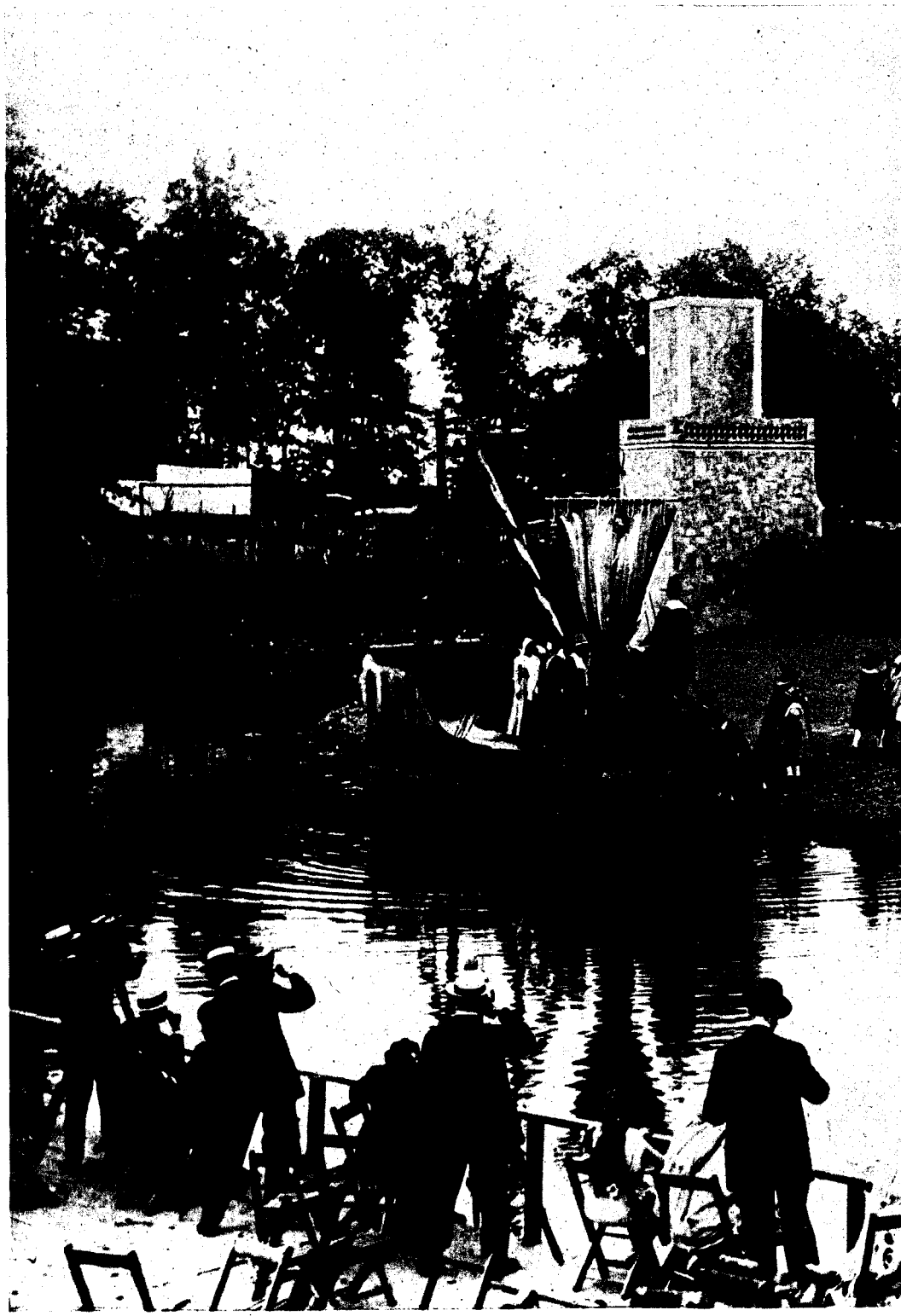

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NEWARK, NEW JERSEY, CELEBRATING THE TW(

Newark was first settled in May, 1666, by a group of families from the older colony of Connecticut, headed by Ro
landing on the banks of the Passaic River, and is one of the many masques and pageants which characterize the cel

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AND FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF ITS FOUNDING

n after years became Governor of Connecticut. The scene pictured above represents Robert Treat and his followers eatures of Newark's early history are commemorated in this celebration, which extends from May to October of this year

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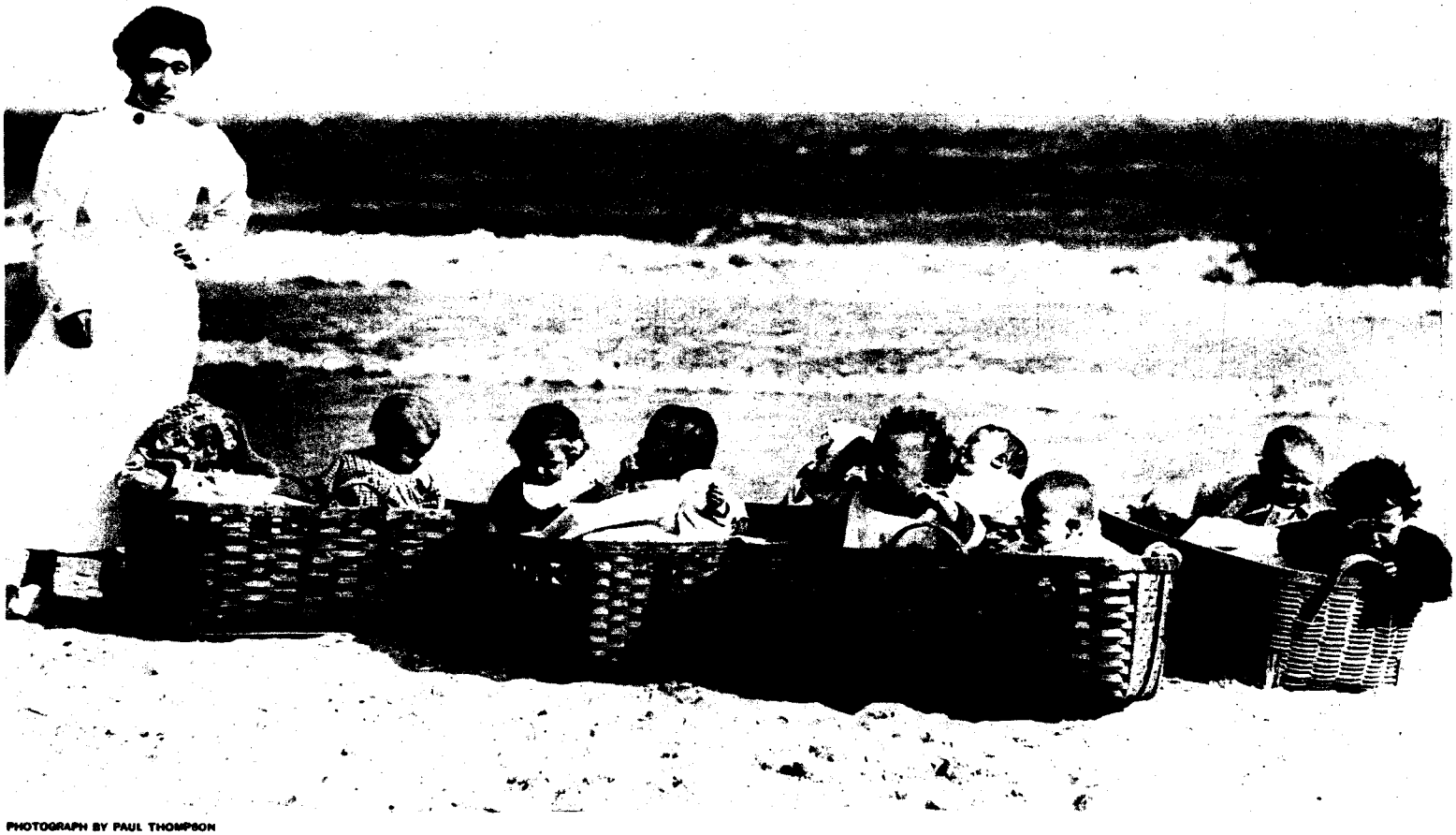

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

FRESH AIR FOR CITY CHILDREN—TINY RESIDENTS OF NEW YORK'S EAST SIDE GO TO SEA BREEZE, CONEY ISLAND

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM PRESS ILLUSTRATING CO.

OMAHA SCHOOL-CHILDREN WAGING WAR ON THE DANDELION

The dandelion, while considered beautiful by many flower-lovers, may easily become a pest, and in some places prizes have been offered to school-children for aid in its eradication. The results of such an offer in Omaha, Nebraska, may be seen in the above picture. It shows a pile of uprooted dandelions gathered by the boys and girls of one school on one Saturday. The amount of work involved in gathering this heap of dandelions shows what efficient aid in town improvement may be found in every public school

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NEW YORK CITY'S JUVENILE POLICEMEN

The Chief of Police is in the center. See editorial pages for comment on these young workers for law and order

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM PAUL THOMPSON

SIR ERNEST SHACKLETON IN AN ICE FIELD OF THE ANTARCTIC REGIONS

This famous explorer of the Southern polar regions has just returned to Port Stanley, the capital of the Falkland Islands, from an expedition which has in vain attempted to rescue a number of his comrades left on Elephant Isle, one of the South Shetland Islands off the Antarctic Continent. The above picture is from a photograph taken on a previous expedition

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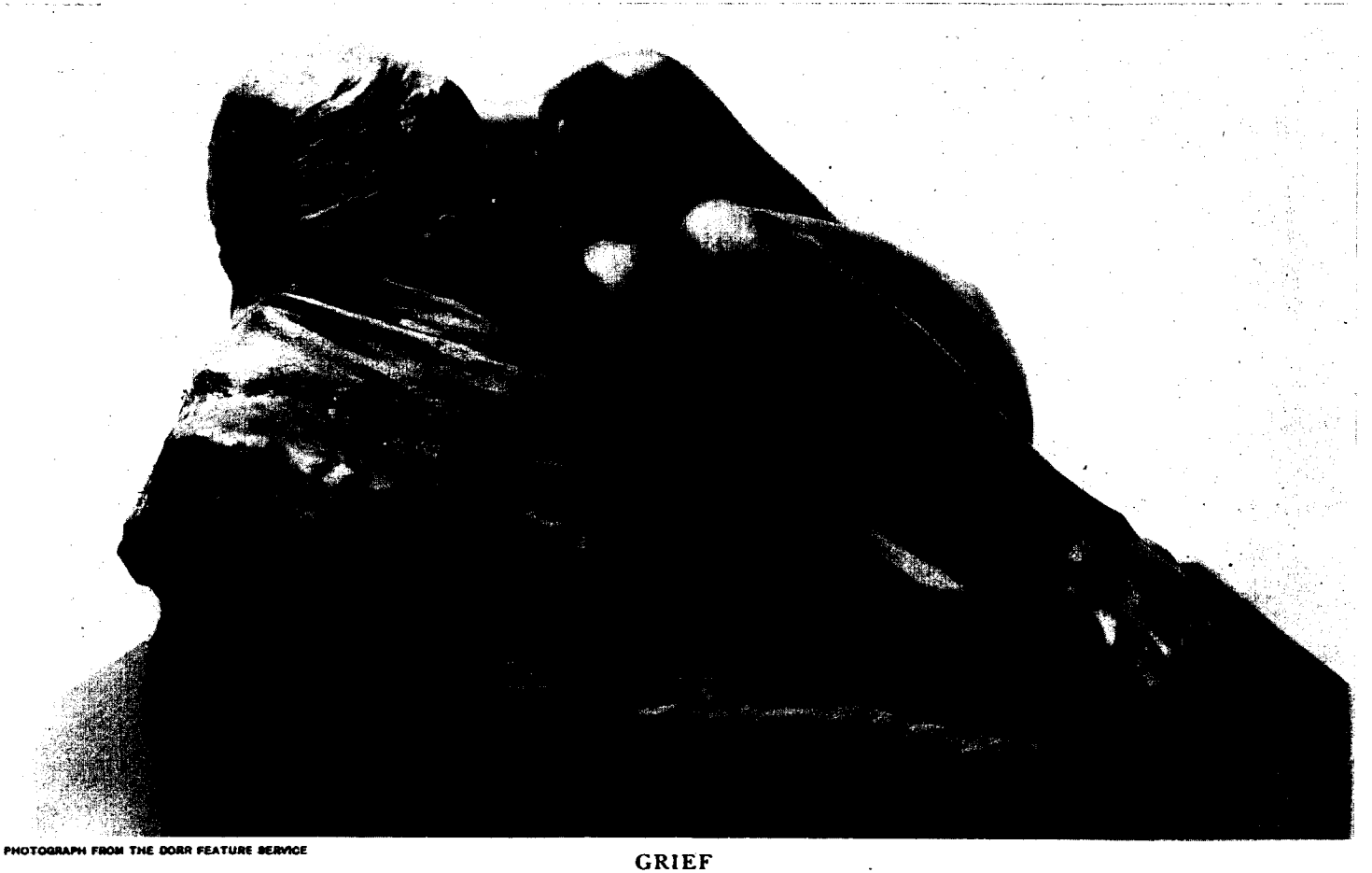

PHOTOGRAPH FROM THE DORR FEATURE SERVICE

GRIEF

From a study for a Monument to the Dead, by Albert Bartholome, in the Exhibition of French and Belgian Art at the Albright Gallery, Buffalo, New York

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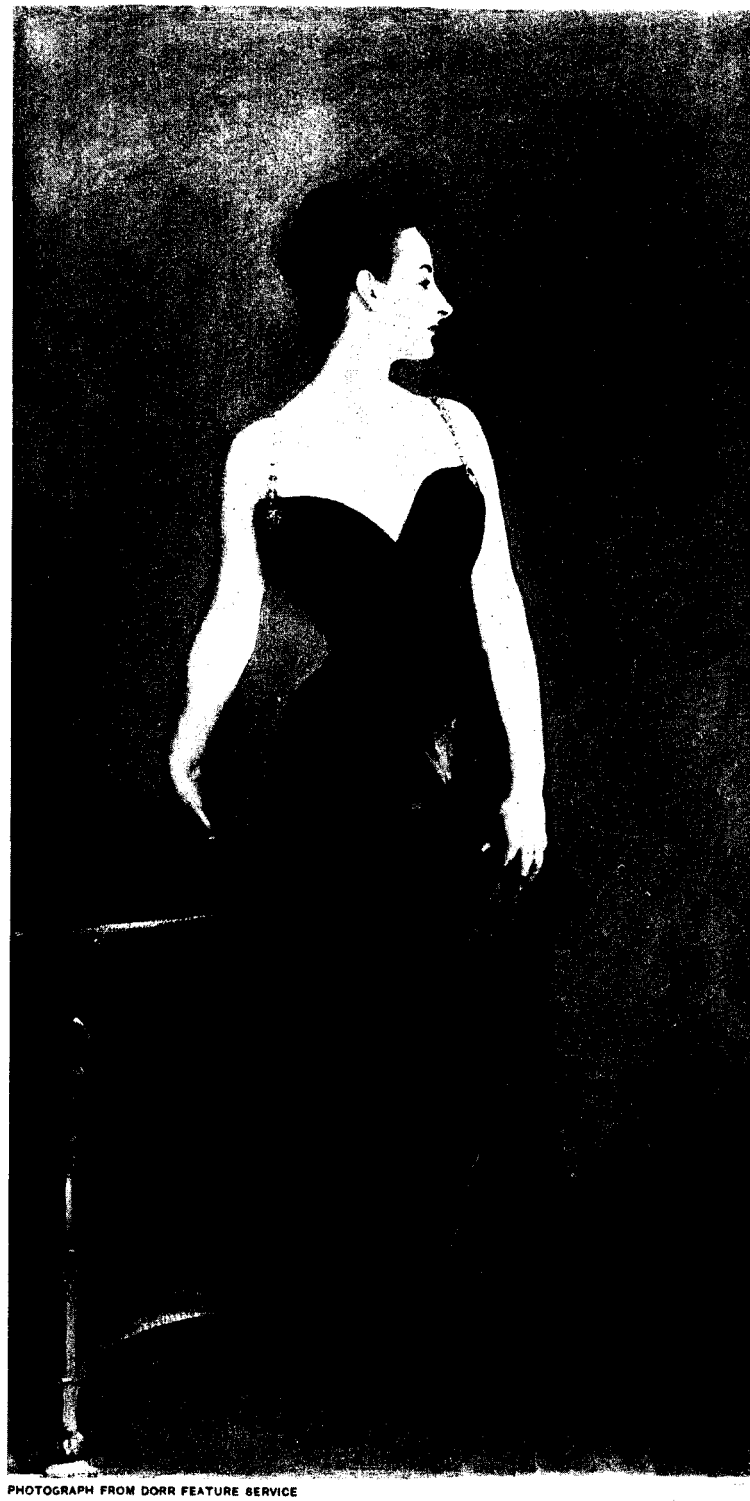

PHOTOGRAPH FROM DORR FEATURE SERVICE

PORTRAIT OF MME. X, BY JOHN S. SARGENT

This characteristic portrait by Mr. Sargent (who has just received the honorary degrees of Doctor of Laws from Yale and Doctor of Arts from Harvard, as noted in last week's Outlook) has recently been acquired by the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of New York City

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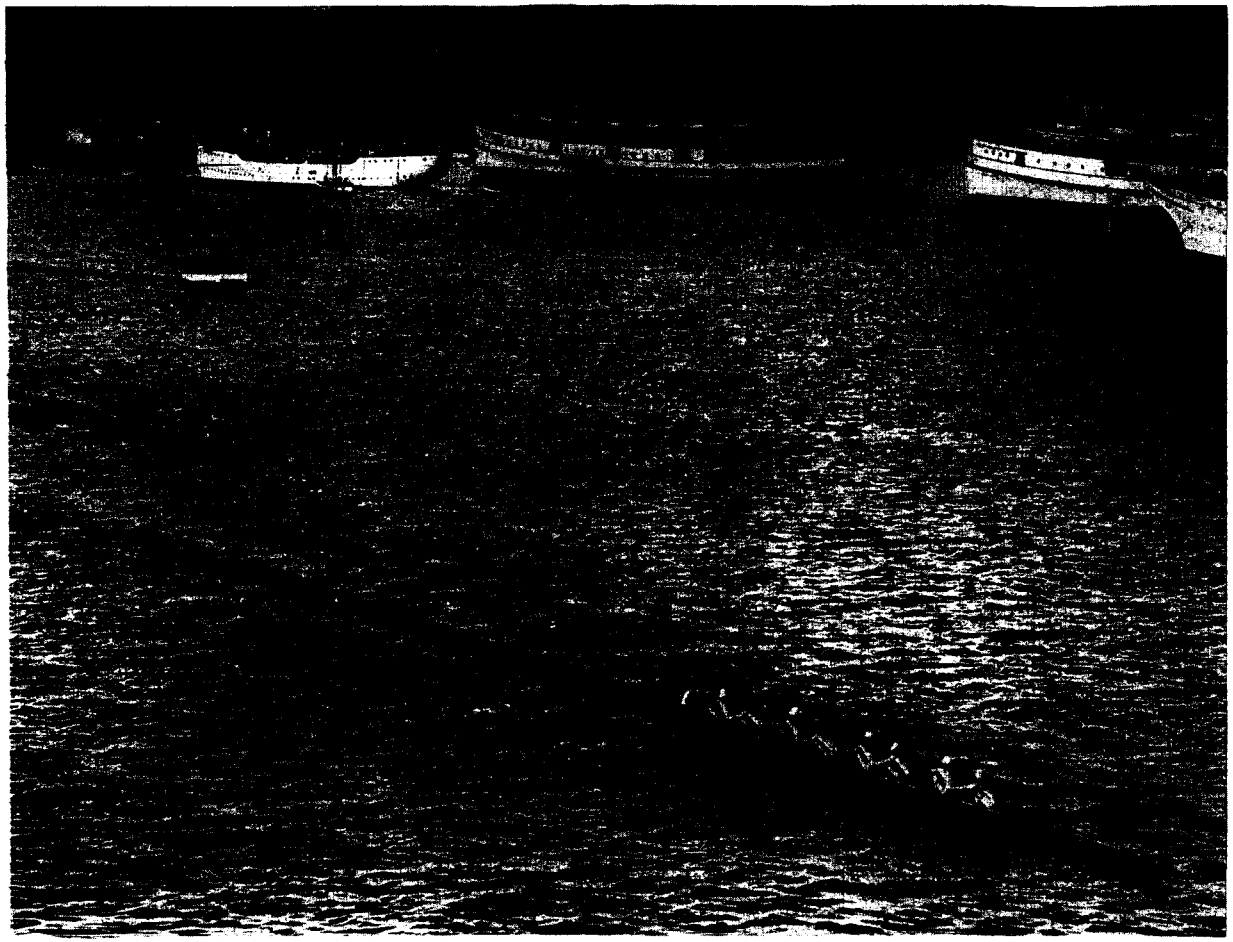

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

A RECORD-BREAKING FINISH—THE HARVARD-YALE BOAT RACE AT NEW LONDON

Harvard's rowing triumph over its old-time rival was this year complete, Yale losing three races in one day. In the race for "varsity eights," the finish of which is pictured above, Harvard led by three lengths in the record time of 20 minutes 2 seconds for the four miles. The best previous time was 20:10, made by Yale in 1888. This triumph by Harvard gives to Yale and Harvard, in this friendly contest for rowing supremacy, an equal number of victories since the contests were begun in 1852

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5. Do not break windows or street lamps, nor deface buildings and sidewalks with chalk.
6. Do not smoke cigarettes or play craps.
7. See that persons do not place encumbrances or obstructions on fire-escapes.
8. See that ashes, garbage, and paper are not mixed.
9. See that the garbage cans are kept covered, and that ash and garbage cans are promptly removed from the sidewalk when emptied.
10. Request persons to keep the sidewalk and areaway in front of their buildings clean, and not throw refuse in the street.
11 Make special effort to perform duties 7, 8, 9, and 10 at your own homes. See that your parents and relatives do not violate the laws and ordinances.
12. For the above purpose do not enter any building under any condition.

In Greater New York there are eighty-seven police precincts. If the boys in any one of these precincts wish to form a Junior Police force, they must be at least twenty-five in number, but the maximum number of boys to be admitted in any precinct is limited only by the total number of boys between eleven and fifteen years of age in that entire precinct.

Each precinct is divided in zones of four to eight blocks, and each boy must work in the zone where he lives. First of all, he must look out for conditions in the immediate neighborhood of his home. Then he must report cases where garbage has been left standing, where back yards are filthy, and where other cases of unsanitation are evident. There are many other cases on which reports are expected, but especially where cordial relationship is lacking between police and people. For every boy is expected to aid the regular police and also to make other boys respect order in all possible ways.

The Junior Police lads have done this work well during the past year, for the little leader in a tough gang in any slum is before everything a scout. He who has been a scout on behalf of disorder now finds himself a scout on behalf of order. Indeed, many embryo gangsters were not at all displeased at the idea of pursuing their scouting profession in what they deemed a "sporty" way. And, with many of them, the more they did it, the better they liked it.

In organization the Junior Police has a somewhat similar system of promotion to that of the older police. Boys who show that they are leaders, like men who show that they are leaders, obtain prestige and rank. The boy private gets to be a sergeant and is placed in command of his zone, and the best boys get the command of a precinct and become inspectors. The boys admitted the Commissioner to their ranks as a private!—and after he had, as they judged, distinguished himself by exemplary conduct, promoted him to be a sergeant. The other day, at a notable gathering, they advanced him to a lieutenancy.

Once a week a competent "grown-up cop" in uniform drills the lads and supervises their instruction in athletics, civics, and good government. When this happens, the Junior Police feel themselves the "sure-enough" thing. They are.

The boys meet at least twice a week. One of the meetings is for drill; the other for the business of organization. The meetings are generally held in the public school, public library, or some other public or semi-public building.

To arouse interest in the Junior Police in their respective precincts auxiliary organizations have already been formed. In these organizations a membership fee is charged and the proceeds from it are used to develop the Junior Police work. For example, in the Fifteenth Precinct of New York City the funds from the auxiliary are employed in buying uniforms and badges and in providing for a paid civilian leader. In speaking of the Fifteenth Precinct, it should by all means be chronicled that Captain John F. Sweeney, of that precinct, was the first police captain to carry out the plan of organization of the Junior Police.

From time to time public meetings are held. Invitations to them are sent to all the people of the precinct. These meetings are often in the nature of shows or various forms of entertainment where an admission fee is charged to provide more funds for the organization. Other meetings are in the nature of exhibition drills, proving the worth of the training already enjoyed.

Why should there not be a Junior Police organization in many of our cities? It represents the largest potential result ever attempted in city government. As Mr. Woods says, no boy need become a gangster if you begin with him early enough.

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THE CLOAK MAKERS' STRIKE[1]

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

WHAT is popularly known as the "Cloak Makers' Strike" is one of the most important industrial disputes ever seen in this country. It is the history either of the last great strike of its kind, or else of the complete futility of public opinion when faced by intrenched indifference.

New York City is headquarters for the manufacture of women's garments. Annually over $200,000,000 worth of cloaks and suits are made there and distributed to the country at large. Over sixty thousand workers are so employed, working in about eighteen hundred "shops" or factories.

During 1909 and 1910 this industry was crippled by a long strike, which was finally ended by a working agreement called the "Protocol of Peace," accepted by the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union on the one side and the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Manufacturers' Protective Association on the other. The protocol bound the manufacturers to give preference to union men in hiring and discharging, and the union, in return, agreed not to strike. All difficulties were to come before a board of arbitration chosen by both parties, whose decisions were to be final.

On this basis there was peace in the industry for five years. Largely on account of the public spirit and wisdom of those in control of the manufacturers, both workers and employers prospered. Sanitary conditions, always a reproach in the industry, were improved. The curse of overwork at one season, with its accompanying unemployment at another, was greatly reduced.

In 1915 a change came over the personnel of the Executive Committee of the Association. The more liberal element lost control to a group of an opposite understanding. A narrow determination to accept no restrictions dominated the Committee. They announced that they would tolerate no "sentimental interference" by the public in their affairs. They sought to do away with arbitration as a stabilizer of the industry, smash the union, and go back to individual in the place of collective bargaining. All efforts at mediation were rejected, the protocol was abrogated, and a lockout declared in the four hundred shops owned by the Manufacturers' Association, thereby forcing the union to call a strike in the remaining shops of the subcontractors.

The lockout came on April 28, 1916, and for two months sixty thousand workers, with their two hundred thousand dependents, have been debarred from earning their living.

During these two months the solidest array of public opinion ever ranged upon one side in a labor struggle has supported the locked-out workers. At the outset not a voice was raised for the manufacturers, not even their own. Except for an angry retort or two they at first doggedly maintained silence and insisted that they were the only ones concerned in the fight and that the public had no interest in the controversy.

First to resent this attitude was the Mayor of New York. Mr. Mitchel's request to the members of the Association to continue discussion with the union had met with a curt refusal. Here is part of his comment on their action:

"I have taken this step of asking this conference, . . . not only because a strike is always injurious to the city as a whole, but because at the present time New York can not and will not tolerate anything in the nature of disturbance of the peace. . . . Accordingly, I have issued the invitation to the Council of Conciliation, to the representatives of the union, who I understand are here this morning, and to the Cloak and Suit Manufacturers' Association. From them I have received what is tantamount to a refusal either to meet the Mayor for the purpose of a conference or to meet the representatives of the union to secure adjustment."

This meant that whatever pressure the Mayor felt that he could justly exert to force the controversy to arbitration he would continue to use.

This meant too that police protection for the strikers was readily obtained. *Agents-provocateurs*, masquerading as armed guards and deputies, would not be allowed to make picketing unhealthy.

So much for the city authorities. Next to beat against the rocky stronghold of the manufacturers was a group of political scientists and economists at Columbia to whom this industrial situation in their own

[1] See editorial comment.

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city seemed highly important. They got together and agreed to study the causes. Both the Manufacturers' Association and the Garment Workers were invited to send representatives to them to explain their contentions. Again the union came. Again the manufacturers refused. After listening to representatives of the workers, the professors drew up a statement in which they placed the responsibility for the lockout squarely on the manufacturers, to whom they first submitted it for correction and then gave it out for publication. It was signed by men like John Dewey, Charles A. Beard, Franklin Giddings, J. H. Robinson, E. R. A. Seligman, and James T. Shotwell, and voices the conclusion that "the real reason for the action of the Manufacturers' Association is that its officers were unwilling to accept the consequences of their agreement, and, as their President has stated, they wished to take advantage of the opportunity to return to conditions existing prior to 1910. We regard this as little less than a public calamity and urge that every effort be made to restore the agreement."

Where the Mayor and the political economists had met with shipwreck the ministers ventured in. A committee of twenty-two addressed a letter to their twelve hundred fellow-clergymen of the city which took the form of an industrial credo. "We believe," they began, "that the issue here involved is clearly one between brute force upon the one side and arbitration and conciliation upon the other. . . . An enlightened public sentiment must be aroused against the Manufacturers' Association, which has defied the public interest. . . . We believe that the clergy of this city should address their congregations on this subject."

As a direct result of this appeal ministers of varying faiths have organized and sent their names in to the union to act as pickets in case the situation demands more than spiritual support.

About this time the National Consumers' League joined the tide. They came out in hearty indorsement of the union's position and circularized their members with a statement of the facts, which carried the greater authority because the local League had lately conducted an investigation into the physical conditions of the industry.

Finally, the women discovered themselves to be the sole consumers in the industry, and entitled to know the facts. The Women's City Club of New York invited the manufacturers and the union to state their grievances to them and their guests, the members of all the women's clubs and organizations of the city.

A mass-meeting was held, but only representatives of the union came to the hearing. The Manufacturers' Association, by its President, E. J. Wile, returned the soft answer that "we do not believe in outside bodies interfering in our affairs. We are tired of the interference we have had for the past six years and of the efforts of men who do not know anything about our business. For this reason we shall return the same answer to the Women's City Club that we sent to the Mayor and shall send to others who try to interfere."

The women didn't relish their treatment, and said so in a letter to the sixteen hundred members of the City Club. "It is of the utmost importance," they declared, "that public opinion should function definitely and at once in this lockout which involves nearly two hundred and fifty thousand people."

The manufacturers by this time had unlocked their shops and invited their men to return on terms which each employer set for himself. To prevent this the union knew that the workers must be fed and clothed and munitioned for the picket-line.

This crisis moved Isaac N. Seligman, R. Fulton Cutting, Mrs. Willard Straight, Miss Ruth Morgan, E. H. Outerbridge, Mrs. Ogden Mills Reid, Sam Lewisohn, Mrs. Gifford Pinchot, Mrs. Benjamin Guggenheim, Allan Robinson, and others prominent in civic and social lines, to organize a citizens' committee to ask for immediate funds. This Committee spoke their minds in a statement the like of which has never before been found necessary to meet conditions in a strike in New York. "The inevitable conclusion," they say, "is that they [the manufacturers] rely upon the lash of starvation to force their workers into unconditional surrender. . . . The attempt to starve the workers and those dependent on them, numbering in all over two hundred thousand human beings, is a matter which vitally concerns the people of this American community."

This struggle is unique in the history of organized labor in New York because immediately and continuously the full power of the newspapers has been on the side of the workers since the lockout was declared. Full justice to the strikers has been given

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in a surprising number of news stories, editorials, and special articles in every paper in the city. A rough count of the space given the strike in its first seven weeks discloses that two hundred and sixty-two feet of printed words, a column wide, have appeared in the English-speaking press; what the German and Yiddish papers printed has not been counted.

From the first the news has been fully and fairly reported. Following this, editors have sent out their best men to bring back colorful accounts of the spirit of the East Side—"human interest" stories, as they are termed. Even the "sob sisters" have been allowed free rein. Conservative editorial pages, weakening before the feeling aroused by the news columns, have bloomed forth into fine flowers of rhetoric against the anti-social attitude of the employers. Waves of editorial exhortation from the "Times," the "Tribune," the "World," the "Journal," the "Globe," the "Post," and the "American" have dashed themselves against the manufacturers, who at first announced that they would make no defense.

Finally, stung by repeated prickings of publicity, they threw off the mantle of indifference and went out to do battle in the public forum. Here they found editorial and news columns unfriendly and were forced to resort to circulars, paid advertisements, and letters to the editors. The meat of their contention is found in a letter to the "Tribune" of June 30, as follows:

> The principle for which we are struggling is that we must be free to conduct our shops without interference.
>
> This is not a fight between employer and employee. It is a fight against the ambitious union leaders of a Socialistic, anarchistic, and political union. We do not wish to crush the union and never were desirous of doing so, nor are we against organized labor. We merely want the right granted every other employer—the right to run his own shop without the domination of a union committed to these policies. We have granted and are willing to continue to grant the workingmen wages, hours, holidays, sanitary conditions, and absolutely fair treatment, but refuse to let the union leader run our shops. We want the right to hire and discharge a workingman according to his efficiency, regardless of his standing or personal affiliations with the union.

This the union leaders promptly answered by a statement in the evening papers of the same day:

Under the agreement between the parties, which the employers' association broke immediately prior to the lockout, the employer was given the right to discharge workers for any good cause or legitimate business reason, subject only to the one provision that such right was not to be exercised oppressively.

Whenever a discharged worker complained that he had been dealt with unfairly and oppressively, his complaint would be passed upon by an impartial trial board, and if found well grounded the worker would be reinstated. In this connection it is very important to remember that this concession was given to the workers in return for the absolute surrender of their right to strike in the shops as a method of redressing their grievances. In other words, the workers had voluntarily given up the sole instrument for the enforcement of fair and just treatment which the law places in their hands, and in return for it the manufacturers had agreed to provide a method for the peaceful adjustment of their grievances.

What the Protective Association demands now is the unrestricted right to treat their workers as they please, to take away from their employees the right to have their grievances passed upon and adjusted by an impartial tribunal, and at the same time to take away from them their own weapons for enforcing humane treatment, *i.e.*, the right to strike. An arrangement of this kind would practically amount to a condition of involuntary servitude.

The manufacturers repeated their refusal to arbitrate the right "to hire and fire" in a pamphlet which was sent to every magazine and newspaper editor in the city. On July 3 the same group of Columbia professors who a month before had rallied to the defense of the strikers came out with an answering statement. "The right to discharge, on which the manufacturers lay stress," say the Columbia men, "is not in controversy, as it is the agreement of August, 1915, which gives the manufacturer the right to discharge for incompetence, insubordination, or inefficiency those unsuited to the shop or unfaithful to their obligations that the workers are fighting to restore."

Unbought publicity, such as the union has been able to command, is very significant. Public service corporations, long since convinced of the futility of their former policy of silence, now employ experts to secure for them public sympathy. Campaign managers no longer act upon the Boss Tweed principle of "what are you going to do about it," but stay awake o' nights p'anning how to arouse public attention. Not so with the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Manufacturers' Protective Associa-

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tion. They at first determined to prove that public sympathy which expresses itself in words does not win strikes. Although later dislodged from this position, they dug themselves into their legal intrenchments and snapped their fingers at all attempts to force or coax them into arbitration. They have counted on watchful waiting, backed by starvation, to win their fight. They have counted on public indifference.

Have we, under our democracy, any machinery through which public opinion can function directly and with celerity?

MARY DEWHURST.

A CITY'S ANNIVERSARY

NEWARK, New Jersey, is having a birthday celebration. Gay with holiday color, Miss Newark is at home to her sister cities from May to October. Incidentally, she is proud of her age, being just turned two hundred and fifty. American-like, too, she points in confidence, while receiving congratulations for this completed milestone, to her plans for the future. She believes fervently that her soil is prepared for a richer, happier society. Thrilled by the ecstasy of the moment, her quickened community conscience visions on the unfolded screen greater civic responsibility, better solutions of modern municipal problems, more splendid achievement.

That she has occasion to be proud of her present rating among the industrial cities of the country is sufficient encouragement for her to face with assurance future situations. To-day her population numbers three hundred and ninety-nine thousand; she produces a yearly output to the amount of a quarter of a billion dollars. Ranking eleventh among American manufacturing cities, she leads the world in variety of manufactures, two hundred and fifty-two lines of goods being produced among her six thousand factories. Thus have the craftsmen who helped to found the settlement of Newark bequeathed their talents to the personnel of the town. Thus has the genius for construction reacted upon the genius for mechanics, with a result in the brilliant list of inventors native of Newark.

It is fitting, too, that this city, which has so much in her records to justify her pride, has paused on her two hundred and fiftieth anniversary to view the superb symbolic pageant of her history, composed and directed by Thomas Wood Stevens. Not without struggle has her present importance been attained. Shadowed at times by inner strife, much of the way has been painful; notwithstanding, the continuous lesson has been progress. All this dramatic element of the story Mr. Stevens has caught and projected into his historic spectacle with remarkable sympathy. An illustration appears on another page.

The real estate transaction with the Indians, which transferred to the founders the site for the original Newark, amounted, through the payment of various commodities, to the value of seven hundred dollars. This purchase placed a band of earnest people in possession of a tract on the banks of the Passaic, where they could form a community that would nourish the principles of Congregationalism. The Congregational Church had had its inception at Branford, Connecticut, in 1644, and the new township was organized in 1666. Thence for more than fifty years Newark was a theocracy. Gradually, however, greater freedom of conscience asserted itself.

At first called New Milford, after one of the Connecticut towns from which the colony had migrated, Newark received its present name in deference to good Pastor Pierson, who had come originally from Newark-on-Trent.

It is interesting in this connection to read the greetings from the venerable English borough to her American namesake: "This ancestor-borough of Newark-upon-Trent was known to the Romans as Ad Pontem, B.C. 54, and as 'Ald-wark' to the Saxons in A.D. 450. The present name of Newark was probably a corruption of new-work, either because of a new town built upon the ruins of the old, or because of a new work erected on our ancient castle here. In the history of England this town has played a great part. It was here the struggles of the Civil War terminated by the surrender outside our walls of King Charles. Our Royal Charters date back to 1550, our incorporation to 1625, and thus our present Mayor is the 291st of his long line. We recite these particulars as showing that your city is linked up with one of no mean origin, and it is a source of glowing pride to us to note the fame and importance in manufactures, art, and education which the daughter city has attained."

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THE NATIONS AT WAR

I. OFFICIALLY—AND OTHERWISE

THE STORY OF TZERNA, AUSTRIAN LANDSTURM PRIVATE

BY HORACE GREEN

THE European conflict is just beginning. No one of the belligerent nations has been touched by war. Each side relishes the battle as much as ever; is certain of victory; will fight to the end; is united to a man; unconquerable and determined—inflexibly, unalterably determined. Both sides command inexhaustible resources. To neither side is it of consequence how long the flow of money and blood continues.

Such, at least, is the sum total of official versions as given for publication by civil and military leaders of the several belligerent nations.

Such is the outlook, as one sees it, after talks, for example, with Hoffrat Montlong, of the Foreign Office in Vienna; with the German Chancellor, von Bethmann Hollweg; with his Excellency von Mumm Schwarzenstein, in the Foreign Office at Berlin; with Gallieni, French Minister of War [this was written before the death of General Gallieni.—THE EDITORS]; with Colonel Herbst, of the War Office in Sofia; or Dr. Radoslavoff, the Premier of Bulgaria. Each of them will say to you, as most of them have said to the writer, in varying words and with apparently the deepest conviction, that victory is certain for the Central Powers, or the Allies, as the case may be.

And when you have compared notes—such as are left after visits to Balkan jails and the currycombing process of frontier sentries—you say to yourself:

"It is hopeless. Peace is no more possible than on August 4, 1914."

On the other hand, you may also study the question through the unofficial eyes of lesser soldiers and the people at large. In that case, if you have struck beneath the surface, you will get a different answer. You will see the body of wounded Europe in a clearer light. Again and again, in ox-cart and in troop train, in trenches and in farmhouse, you will hear the cry go up, "How long can this thing last?" and you will know that the break may come as unexpectedly as the war—like a jagged streak of clear lightning shooting through the blackest cloud. It was a cry for peace that I got from Huebsch, the German courier between Berlin and Constantinople; from the French officer who got me through the frontier that midnight at Pontarlier; from Jacques Gaster, the philosophic Austrian detective who was put on my trail in Bulgaria; from the widow of Stuttgart whose friend committed suicide while waiting for news from her boy at the front; from the doctor of Aix-la-Chapelle who begged me to start a peace propaganda in America; and from my troop train acquaintance, the restaurant-keeper of Budapest.

Among the Central Powers, despite the warlike talk of leaders, signs of discouragement multiply beneath the surface. Beneath the surface, too, lies evidence of exhaustion—if not in Germany, at least, I think I am justified in saying, among the Teuton allies to the south.

At the time that I was in Bulgaria Dr. V. Radoslavoff, the Premier and right-hand man of King Ferdinand, emphasized his country's impregnability in an interview which I had with him while the German and Bulgarian forces were massed before Salonika. "Bulgarian soldiers," he said, "will be willing to return to their homes as soon as Servia and Macedonia are ceded to us. Until that is done there is no hope for peace, for Germany and Bulgaria will be able to lay down their own terms."

And likewise King Ferdinand's farewell speech to the French Minister at the latter's departure from Sofia, as reported to me by the American military attaché at a certain foreign capital. "Tell your people," were Ferdinand's candid words, "that French blood flows in my veins. Say to them that I hope it is not necessary for my soldiers to fight the French. But I have chosen my course because I know that Germany is invincible."

During my stay in Berlin members of the German Foreign Office were equally optimistic and equally convincing.

On returning north from the Balkans I went to a member of the Foreign Office in Vienna for permission to break the Great

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Rule that war correspondents shall not cross between enemy frontiers. I was anxious to compare undercurrent opinion in 1916 behind the French and German trenches, and, as matters turned out, was the only war correspondent to receive such permission. My official friend was a long, gray-bearded Austrian, with the incisive speech and nervous manner of the late Joseph Pulitzer.

"If you are successful in crossing the border," he said, jabbing the desk with his paper-cutter, "tell the French that they had better stop fighting. I say this because I am partly of French descent, and am sorry for them. It is useless for them to continue."

"There is no objection to my going?"

"Not if you tell the truth about Austria. Food, as you see for yourself, is plentiful. The people are united. Austria is going to win. How long the struggle lasts is immaterial." He believed what he said, because he was steeped in the official documents of success, by means of which it was his duty to keep before the public the mechanical appearance of victory.

But even as the speaker harped on official facts for publication my memory jumped back to my experiences while rubbing elbows with the masses east of the Rhine—in Germany, in Austria and Hungary, and later along the Danube—where I saw more clearly and more deeply beneath the surface into matters altogether unfit for Continental publication. I recalled again Huebsch, the German courier; Gaster, the philosophic detective; the sorrowing doctor of Aix-la-Chapelle; the widow of Stuttgart; and, above all, my haggard traveling companion Leo Tzerna,[1] the German-speaking restaurant-keeper of Budapest.

Tzerna was a second-reserve *Landsturm* man, just called into service when I met him, and on the way to join his division in Servia. He was far too gray and bent for his forty-seven years, and tired—so tired that he seemed to drag his body after his eyes. An excited imagination may have lent details to his story. I do not hold the case to be typical (though there is less cohesion in Austria than in Germany), but as evidence of the way the wind is blowing it is worth consideration.

The restaurant-keeper got into our car at two o'clock one morning, when our combination troop and passenger train stopped at a little station in the Hungarian plains, about two or three hundred miles southeast of Budapest. Dawson, the Indiana photographer with whom I was traveling, was snoring on one end of a wooden bench when Tzerna opened the compartment door and deposited his *Rücksack*.

"Do not disturb him," said Tzerna, speaking in English that betrayed a German background. "I do not wish to sleep." And he paced the corridor most of the night, muttering to himself.

During the first day's acquaintance he kept up the usual "bluff" which is the custom of patriotic natives in the presence of strangers. "Iss it that you are correspondents?" he had asked, after listening to scraps of our conversation. I admitted that it was our profession to record the facts of life by means of the kodak and the pen, respectively.

"Then you must write that Austria will win," he remarked. "Because, you understand, we have very much of money, very much of food, and we get very much new material from Turkey."

"*Ja, ja*," cut in the German courier with the harsh staccato voice, who was guarding his precious mail-pouch in the opposite corner. "It can nothing else be but that we shall win. So soon as next spring the English will be of fighting tired."

Later Tzerna joined me while I was stretching my legs at an unpronounceable station where the engineer must have had friends—for we stayed about an hour. Seventeen hours in the same compartment, added to the fact that I had shown him how to send a censored telegram to his wife, had brought me into Tzerna's confidence.

"Now, honestly, what do you think?" he asked.

"About what?"

"About the war. When do you think I can go home? It is for a correspondent to understand everything, is it not? I speak to you as a stranger who has been in an enemy's land. When do you think the Great Peace will come?"

We continued our talk in our dirty third-class compartment, where I shared with the restaurant-keeper a midnight supper of long strips of *Wurst* fried over charcoal (which we had bought from peasants along the road) and washed down by *Schweck*, the native Hungarian drink.

"You see," said Tzerna between gulps, "it is to me of much importance what you

[1] According to promise, the names of the restaurant-keeper and his wife have been changed.

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say. I say to you last night that our side would win and that we do not mind the fighting. I ask you if your country will come into the war, and you will not speak with me of that. But I know your country will not fight. With your country business is business, as you say it, and while we here fight America will become rich. Yes? And I, Tzerna, the restaurant-keeper, I have had my business too, but the business is no longer good. The business is no longer anything—it is dead." He hesitated a moment. "It is dead—just as my three sons and my daughter's husband and the two cousins of my wife are dead. First my business lost a little. That was before my oldest son had his leg frozen in the Carpathian *schützen* trenches [*Graben*], and they cut it off. Since then my business has entirely stopped, and during the last year my younger friends, one by one, have gone away to fight."

"What is your business?" I asked him.

He poured out a cupful of the thin yellow wine and took it at a gulp. The Austrian officer in the opposite corner—the one on furlough who got into our compartment at Szegedin—was slicing a piece of cold sausage-meat with his army knife. In the neighboring seat the German courier with the pompadour hair and the staccato laugh was snoring loudly; his fat neck and close-shaven head had rolled over sidewise against the fur collar of the Austrian officer's coat.

"My business," said Tzerna in an undertone, glancing nervously at the sleeping German, "was restaurant-keeper. Do you mind if I tell you of it? I cannot sleep for thinking of many things. Pray accept some of my wine.

"To begin with, you must understand that it was twenty-seven years ago that I began my café business in the same place where I stayed until last summer, on the Mátyás-strasse, not far from the Francis Joseph Bridge, which crosses the Danube from Buda to Pest. I did not make anything at first, but the father of my German wife, he gave me help. I spend the first year getting people to come to my restaurant, building up my—how do you say it?"

"Clientele."

"Is that it? Yes, building up the—cli-en-tel. And everybody likes the special wine I mix, so the customers stay; and the gay young men and officers like to talk with my wife when she give them change and to make fun with the pretty waitresses. Very soon the place becomes well known, and we make a great deal of money. My boys grow up and go to the *Gymnasium*, and my girl grow up and study to play music.

"And then the war came. It began because Austria must punish Servia. So much is completed. It continue because Germany wish to be greater and richer. It wish to have more land, more space for development, more power; it wish to have more ships on the ocean, where it can sell its products, and also it need to have more colonies. Now hear me closely; I must not speak loud. So the great men and the Government continue the war. The—you know the man I mean—make speeches to the Ministers in the Reichstag. The great men do not ask the people what the people wish. They say: 'We give you this war; it is good for you that you have this war, because your country will become richer and you will become richer when it is over.' Yes, that is it—richer when it is over. So, *mein Herr*, it is very queer, is it not? I give my whole life to make my business to grow; and now comes this war, and my business and my two sons and my daughter's husband and the two cousins of my wife are gone, and at the age of forty-seven, when I am too old to begin again, I am compelled to fight, and I do not know what will become to my wife, and it is all—for what? It is all because that I should become richer and my country should become richer *when I am dead and when the war is over!*

"At the beginning I lose my money because the soldiers and the younger men who patronize my business are called away to fight. And the others have not so much money to spend and I must pay more to buy provisions. Butter, which then cost me 1.25 kronen for the pound, now cost me 3 kronen for the pound. The beer is very much the same price. But I cannot buy any milk, whatsoever I pay for it, because it is all taken by the Government for children and sick persons. On two days of the week it is not permitted for me to sell meat in my restaurant, and on one day every week I cannot sell pork, and on two days I cannot sell any meat fried in butter or in fat products. And no one will buy wine, for no one wishes to have amusement over the wine-glasses, so I do not make money in that way."

The train stopped in an out-of-the-way spot at a signal of a *militaire* who boarded to examine our credentials. An impressive gen-

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darme with shining top hat and black feathers examined my passport, holding it upside down. He couldn't read a word of the various visés, but he checked me off just the same. My name and description had been telegraphed from the last searching station. When the gendarme had gone, the restaurant-keeper continued.

"In the fourth month of the war my oldest son—the son who had his leg cut off—died. My wife, Carlotta, say: 'The Francko family have two sons dead; so we are happier than they.' I did not see her weep.

"In the spring my second boy, Paul, was killed at Lemberg. When the *Feldbrief* came, my Carlotta said, 'Perhaps the English have more killed than we, and soon the Peace will come.' I do not remember that she ever cried. But we give up the restaurant business and go to Vienna to be near my daughter, who studies there to play music, and my wife works for the Government in the hospital for the blind. I also work in a factory place where we make ammunition—but it is not permitted to say where.

"In the summer, when I return to Vienna, I can see my wife is not very well. We hear that my daughter's husband is killed in the Alps—at Tolmino Pass—but my wife say only, 'I should wish to know where is my youngest son.' I answer that he is captured and in good hands, and she answer, 'Perhaps it is so.'

"I tell Carlotta what the Government officials say to me at—that factory where I work. They say Germany and Austria have so many trained soldiers waiting to fight that our side must win soon. Also a new loan has been made, so it gives much of money in the land.

"My wife look for a long time out of the window at the river, and then she laugh—a very queer laugh.

"That was several months ago. We have now only the one son who is prisoner—perhaps. I am let away from the factory city, so my wife and I stay much of the time together. It is five months this way, and we begin again to be a little happy.

"The last month we have been both afraid—afraid of something. I have been going twice a week to the drill-grounds, and I know that it will come soon. It came that day—three days back—the *Landsturmberuf* [the call] for me.

"The men in my *Landsturm* company—they are all over forty-two—wrap up a pair of heavy shoes in a paper bundle, and the two flannel shirts which it is required that we take.

"You have seen the *Landsturm* go? There is no brass band to-day, and the people do not sit in the window and watch us and cheer. Everybody is too much of the fighting tired for that. The *Landsturm* is not always drawn up in order, and they do not really march; they walk like so many school-girls returning from the school. My company does not yet have the uniform on. I am to go to the station, and from there to the drill-ground, where the uniform will be given to me.

"We walk through the streets; many wives and children walk with us, but hardly a word is spoken. It is early in the morning, and therefore the street is very quiet, except that two hundred heavy shoes make very much of noise. You know Vienna? Yes? We go down Ringstrasse. Then we cross to the Zollamtstrasse and go by the Kriegsministerium, where the names of the hundreds of thousands of *gefallen* are printed on the wall. The captain was not with us, but some one cry out:

"'Honor the dead!'

"So we throw our feet out high in front and bring them loudly on the pavement down. That is how we saluted the names of the dead of Austria.

"An old man standing at the corner take off his hat to us as we go by.

"We march over the bridge on the way to the station and down the little Kornerstrasse, where my wife now have a room.

"I go through the hall and up to the second floor to say good-by to Carlotta—my wife Carlotta.

"I find her sitting by the window which looks upon the Danube. On the table is the newspaper, the 'Neue Freie Presse' of Vienna, in which is a speech which a statesman has made the day before in the Reichsrat.

"I say, 'Good-by, Carlotta.' And then, to make her happy, 'The Peace will soon be here.' And then I read to her from the speech:

"One hundred thousand *Landsturm* are prepared for service and are anxious to take part in the last of the glorious fight. Russia has been pushed back, Italy checked, and we have driven the enemy from Servia. From our enemies the Peace will come soon.

"'Good-by, I will soon return, Carlot—'

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"Suddenly Carlotta start to laugh. She run from the room—she shriek—

"I catch her. 'Dearest, good Carlotta, what is it?'

"'The Peace will come soon!' she cries. She laugh louder and she pound on the wall and she shriek.

"'The Peace will come soon!' she shriek out loud and tear up the newspaper and stamp on it and throw it from the window out.

"'The Peace will come soon!' once more she cry. She throw herself on the bed and laugh out loud. *Ach, Gott*, how she laugh! *Du lieber Gott*, how she laugh!"

"And then you left with your company?" I asked a few minutes later, while Tzerna was buried in thought.

"Yes, they called for me to come. I do not see her again. And that is why I cannot sleep for the thought of her—because through my eyes I always see Carlotta, and in my ears I always hear her laughing. *Ach, Gott*, such a laughing."

The train came to a jolting stop, the German courier yawned, sat upright, and reached for his precious mail-pouch.

Tzerna stopped speaking, as if he feared he had been making a fool of himself. He whipped out another of those thin Turkish cigarettes—the kind with the cardboard mouthpiece—and in his excitement lighted it at the wrong end. He tossed it away, took another nervous gulp from the *Schweck* bottle, and swung open the door of our compartment. For a long time, as I watched the sun rise lazily over the Hungarian plains, I could hear him pacing up and down the dimly lighted, smoke-filled corridor. Two hours later we watched him as he stepped across the platform at Kronstadt, shouldered his *Rücksack*, tucked a greasy paper package under his arm, and disappeared with the outgoing *Feldzug*, eventually bound for "somewhere in Servia."

At Kronstadt, because carefully worked out figures of German losses were found on my person, I myself was arrested on suspicion of being a spy. Two days later, after being released and making my way to the Rumanian capital, I again ran into my companion in and out of trouble, Dawson, the Indiana moving-picture man.

"Funny old bird, that restaurant fellow," remarked the photographer that night, as we sat on the edge of our bunks in a so-called hotel in Bucharest. "Did he give you any interesting dope?"

To me it was interesting "dope." But the Censor would never have let it through. For, of course, it was nothing *official*.

II. SWITZERLAND AND THE WAR

BY SANFORD GRIFFITH

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK

SWITZERLAND has maintained her neutrality. Surrounded by nations at war, divided by internal dissensions, the Swiss are more determined than ever not to be drawn into the struggle for any reason but one—self-defense. Of the many shades of neutrality, that of Switzerland is the most positive. It is not a Greek neutrality, commonly called benevolent: "Better to let our toes be stepped on rather than to be walked over." Nor is it a neutrality of splendid isolation: "Our interests are not vitally concerned, let us keep out of it." The declaration of the New Helvetical Society, a vigorous Swiss national organization, is typical:

"Our neutrality in this war is the assertion of our independence. It must not be passive, but active. We must be not only the country of refuge, but the country where, based on a respect of law, a higher conception of life, now so necessary to European civilization, can be realized. We are conscious of our obligations to maintain fairness in our judgments and charity in our actions toward the belligerents. We must come out of this cataclysm not weakened but strengthened. Switzerland must justify her existence, and must show how a small people may be a great nation."

The Swiss have basked in no illusions of the sacredness of such a guarantee of neutrality described as a "European necessity" by the Powers in 1815. Succoring with generous hospitality war sufferers of all countries, the Swiss are none the less alert against any violation of their frontiers. Carl Spitteler,

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the German-Swiss poet, formerly as beloved in Germany as in Switzerland, declared the Swiss right of defense:

> Why, you ask, are our troops on all the frontiers? Simply because we have not entire confidence in any of our neighbors. It is no time to talk of discourtesy. Political organisms called states are not moral forces. They move less by sentiment than by brute force. It is not insignificant that they take as their device birds of prey. Their philosophy may be résuméed in a single sentence: The state devours all that it can.

There is an atmosphere of war in Switzerland which sustains a certain nervous tension. The smallest village is familiar with the roll of tambours—but Swiss tambours. Basel hears the incessant rumble of the heavy batteries in the Vosges, carried sometimes as far south across the Jura as Geneva.

Dependent upon surrounding countries for her food supply, many observers were convinced that for her very existence Switzerland would be drawn into the war. Resistance has indeed been difficult. The state has been obliged to triple the national debt. Imports have fallen to half of what they were in 1915. Federal railway returns have dropped. For want of materials and coal many factories have been obliged to shut down. Hotels are deserted. Mobilization has been another serious handicap. Indeed, Switzerland seems to have suffered all of the hardships of war but one, the greatest—loss of life.

Before analyzing some of the conflicting French and German influences in Switzerland, it would not be out of place to recount briefly some aspects of Swiss dependence upon these neighboring countries. Over fourteen per cent of the population is foreign. On the eve of war nearly half the population of Geneva was foreign, largely French. Zurich and Basel, in the zone of German influence, boast of twenty and forty-two per cent, respectively. Little concerned with the development of the country, except in so far as it restrained their own freedom of action, these migratory waves formed a serious check to every national movement. As will be seen later, this infiltration developed in Switzerland that type of international financier's mind which is keen to grasp any immediate economic advantage, but very slow to see dangers threatening national integrity. In many bourgeois circles it nurtured a flabby cosmopolitanism which succumbed only before the threatened invasion of the country.

The profound racial gulf dividing French and German Switzerland seems in many respects to have been deepened by the war. The Swiss of Geneva, Neuchâtel, and Lausanne are closer in culture and in sympathies to France than to their fellow-Swiss of German extraction. The strong Protestant center of Geneva, in part of old French Huguenot stock, though highly particularist, has close religious ties with Protestant France. But anti-clericalism and skepticism in France, especially of the last two decades, had alienated, as in Alsace, the sympathies of simple Protestant and Catholic folk in neighboring cantons. During the Franco-Prussian War opinion in French Switzerland was divided. Memories of Napoleon and the menace of Imperialism made nearly half of the population look with favor upon the German cause. But to-day French-Swiss are united in hopes with the Allies. "We can give our sympathies to France and England, without admiring Russia," is their rather common democratic attitude. These ties with France find their origin in a common respect for democracy, liberty, tolerance, and, above all, for the principle, doubly enforced since the invasion of Belgium, that a people has a right to a voice in its own destiny. French literature and the French stage have a considerable influence over the culture of these western cantons.

To satisfy their material needs the people looked to France rather than to Germany. The lower French freight rates were established on a strip of the adjoining Swiss line. Such industries as lace and clock making were dependent upon their French and English clientele. The hotel trade, too, looked directly to these foreign visitors.

But, compared with German infiltration into the Swiss territory bordering the Empire, French influence sinks into insignificance. So extensive was it that one German newspaper, the "Gegenwart," referred to the country as an economic *dominium* of Germany. Carl Spitteler tells of his own feeling toward the part Germany played in Swiss development, an influence which made him forget that the Swiss frontier existed. He looked to the Rhine for romantic inspiration. He felt the throb of the great intellectual evolution in Germany as though it were his own country. German professors fill chairs in German-Swiss universities. The German educational system throughout Switzerland facilitates this. When a chair is vacant in a German-Swiss university, it is a simple matter

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to find a German to fill it. The system works automatically. The same is true of Swiss students, who continue without break their studies in Germany. In French Switzerland, on the other hand, the divergence with the French system tends to exclude French professors. The number of French-Swiss students who study in France also is considerably smaller. Before the war a considerable Swiss press was notoriously dependent upon German agencies, and many papers frankly represented German interests. There is no religious friction here between Swiss and South German Catholics and Protestants. The Protestant clergy has naturally looked rather to Germany than to France for inspiration. "Be assured," declared Eberhard Vischer, a German-Swiss, recently, in "Wissen und Leben," a series of Swiss political pamphlets, "that you are not only Protestants and Swiss, but also German, and by your speech and your family relations are bound to Germany by a thousand ties."

There have been other disintegrating forces at work in Switzerland. Coincident with the growth of the foreign population has been that of the international hotel. Over thirty-five thousand Swiss were engaged in this business. In hotel regions visions of easy money spread among the lower classes. Yodeling became more profitable than farming, and the eccentric peasant frocks peddled from the hotels had a deplorable effect upon household economy.

A series of international conventions, as that of the St. Gothard Pass in 1909, are typical of a rather short-sighted federal policy. This St. Gothard agreement applies to rates between Germany and Italy. In return for certain dividends the Swiss Federal Council bound "to perpetuity" the federal railways not to enter into combination with any company whose lower tariff would make dangerous concurrence to the St. Gothard. The danger lies in the perpetuity clause, in the failure to base the convention upon the common principle of reciprocity, and in the recognition of German influence over Swiss railways. Patriotic Swiss, while recognizing substantial economic advantages in such projects as that of St. Gothard and as that of the Rhine Canal to Basel, also saw in them a tendency to economic tutelage under Germany.

The Swiss Federal Government might well have been compared to the board of directors of a large and successful corporation. The firm's business was conducted to the approximate satisfaction of the shareholders, the Swiss people, who, not particularly well acquainted with each other, demanded nothing more than to receive their periodical dividends in the shape of enlightened industrial legislation.

War declared, Swiss neutrality was put to the test. Economic pressure was brought to bear from all sides. It has become in some respects an *impasse* for the Swiss dealer. He cannot get coal from Germany, upon which he is absolutely dependent, except in return for certain articles from Allied countries. On the other hand, the Allies, more preoccupied with the economic isolation of the central states than with the existence of Swiss industry, denied him materials susceptible to export. This awkward position was somewhat modified by the S. S. S. (the Swiss Society of Surveillance), modeled after the Dutch Overseas Trust. By this co-operation with the Allied Governments, Switzerland is assured French and British exports, subject to a heavy penalty if re-exported to the central states. Such, however, has been the mass of forms and regulations which incrust all dealings with this Society that many despairing Swiss have been driven into the arms of more complaisant German dealers. Swiss industries suffered another blow by the intolerant attitude of many buyers on both sides who declined further relations with companies which do business with their enemies. Neutrality in such straits is a hard word.

Dangers of immediate invasion over, and the general mobilization diminished, disintegration forces inside the country set to work with renewed energy. German-Swiss, unconcerned by German infiltration, showed a high degree of susceptibility toward almost anything. To French-Swiss, who see in any recognition of the invasion of Belgium an abnegation of Swiss existence, and who fear German Imperialism as nothing else in the world, the callousness of their Teutonic fellow-countrymen seems a menace to Swiss neutrality.

The writer was present at a dinner given in celebration of a Geneva festival some weeks ago. A well-known Swiss editor, of Francophile tendencies, spoke with indignation of an officers' mess he attended where the German-Swiss officers, at their separate table, celebrated with champagne the German victories in Russia. To this editor these

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German-Swiss had forfeited their birthright. A young Swiss officer to whom the writer repeated the remark laughingly asked: "And do you know what the French-Swiss officers at the next table were doing the following week? They were clinking glasses to the French victory in Champagne."

To the average French-Swiss neutrality involves a general condemnation of the invaders of Belgium. It is jokingly said of these *intransigeants*: "The French would like peace, but the Lausanneois will not let them make peace. German-Swiss blood ties, on the other hand, with the neighboring Empire make unemotional criticism of the war impossible."

We see the same factors which make the Swiss tolerant or intolerant toward their belligerent neighbors at work inside. So different are the views of these two peoples that they have but few points of intellectual contact. There have indeed been crises which would resemble the pre-bellum antagonism between rival states were it not for the spontaneous sinking of all differences before the greater obligation of defending Swiss national integrity. The invasion of Belgium, disclosures of espionage, the affair of the two colonels (described further on), the tearing down of the German consular flag at Lausanne, and the decision in the colonels' case have all been moments of painful tension.

A certain hybrid Swiss press accentuated these differences. German press agencies made good use of their influence in Switzerland. There are strange anomalies. An article inspired by a German agency appears in a local paper. The following day it is copied in the "Frankfurter" or some other "Zeitung" as typical of Swiss public opinion. French and British papers then come out with exclamations, "So that is what the Swiss call neutrality!"

This dependence moved Swiss patriotic societies to action. Foremost among these is the New Helvetical Society. It takes its name from the famous patriotic organization of the eighteenth century. Organized some two years before the war among younger French-Swiss Nationalists, its rapid growth and lofty aims make it resemble many of the Italian societies of the early forties. To maintain a democratic, self-conscious state presents many of the same problems as to create one. War declared, the New Helvetical Society became a doubly powerful national influence. To neutralize foreign press agencies it established a central news bureau, a feeder to the many small local sheets. It secured control of the Minerva & Familien Company of Zurich. This German agency supplied weekly pictorial supplements to 128 Swiss newspapers. The only difference between these pictures and those which appeared simultaneously in Germany was that, instead of the Kaiser reviewing the Imperial Guard, followed by a picture of the Kaiser unveiling a monument to his illustrious grandfather, the Swiss supplement would alternate the two by interposing a picture of Alpiners or of a prize herd of some canton. The change in control has already had a salutary national influence.

If the writer lays himself open to the criticism of over-emphasizing German influence in Switzerland, it is because he finds it, through better organization, much more susceptible to definition than the French. The former is a more extensive, a more aggressive factor in Swiss political life. French and Italian publicists, by lectures and pamphlets, have gone as far as the censor would permit in expounding their causes in Switzerland. But in general there has been a regrettable disregard on the part of the Allies of Swiss public opinion, and Allied propaganda, as a result, has been of too desultory a nature to permit generalization.

German military organization fascinated certain of the Swiss staff and encouraged them to emulation on a small scale at home. They see the safety of the state in efficient organization, in centralization of power, and in subordination at such a time of civil to military authority. They favor the censorship; a prompt suppression of anything bordering upon popular demonstration. They admire in external affairs a vigorous *Realpolitik*. At least two of them, the Colonels Egli and von Wattenwyl, let their zeal carry them too far. They were charged with and convicted of communicating the confidential Swiss army bulletin to a German military attaché. A more serious charge, dismissed but not entirely discredited for want of evidence, was that of disclosing Russian secret code reports to the same beneficiaries. Colonel von Sprecher, Chief of the Swiss General Staff, a man of unquestioned integrity, in his desire to avert humiliation to the profession, covered the acts of his subordinates and went so far as to declare that in return for valuable information he could conceive a Swiss officer offering something which might not

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absolutely conform with Swiss neutrality. This conception of national bargaining drew a storm of protest from French-Swiss. The attitude of Colonel von Sprecher resembles that of Colonel Reuter of Zabern fame, who, rather than suffer the punishment of a young officer of his regiment for impertinence, took the entire responsibility upon himself, and of course secured what approximated an acquittal. That everything concerning the army is sacred and not open to crass civilian discussion is a revolting idea to the majority of French-Swiss; and the week of discussion in the Federal Assembly following the trial very definitely established this. They demanded a more loyal respect for Swiss neutrality, a subordination of military to civil authority, and a limiting of the powers assumed by the Federal Council. They protested against further centralization of power, and against what they called the Prussianizing of the country.

It is obvious that mutual understanding between two peoples of such different points of view, and subject to such different influences as the French and German Swiss, is confronted by almost insurmountable obstacles. But the war has reinforced a national consciousness and a conviction that, no matter how great local differences may be, they are less painful than the disasters which would follow Swiss disruption. In a common love of democratic institutions and in a love of the home-land they see a basis for future accord; and in their associations made possible by a mutual tolerance of racial differences they see an example which in the future, if followed by their larger neighbors, would be a great step toward the peace of Europe. "We may each develop according to our *genie*, recognizing our differences, but united in a defense of freedom of thought, and a culture which more powerful neighbors would hinder and destroy."

Francesco di Chiesa, an Italian Swiss, in a memorable address in 1913, compared the Swiss Confederation to a Greek temple. The columns, each independent of the other—the Swiss cantons—are not perpendicular, but slightly oblique. They rise imperceptibly toward a common axis, a common ideal.

Paris, March 30, 1916.

THE SHADOW ON THE LIGHT OF ASIA

BY JEAN CARTER COCHRAN

"I THINK people's religion is like their skin—they are born with it, and they cannot alter it; beside which the Orientals are happy in their religion. Then why in heaven should we seek to change it? I call it giving ourselves foolish airs." With the complacent manner of one who has put forth an absolutely unanswerable argument to the whole question, my friend sipped her tea and started a lively discussion on preparedness with her other neighbor.

"Happy in their religion!" At the words the tasteful drawing-room faded away and I ceased to listen to the merry chatter around me, while Li Sao-tze's gentle face arose before my vision and I thought of Chinese life as I had found it in a year spent in visiting that interesting nation.

Is it mere chance that on leaving the ever soft green shores of Japan one must sail through a yellow sea before one can reach the yellow country and meet the yellow people? and must the religion be yellow because the skin is, I wonder? We had sailed through the Yellow Sea on our voyage of discovery of foreign places and steamed up the river to Shanghai with our Occidental eyes wide open to miss no sight, our ears attentive to miss no sound, and our unwilling noses missing no scent of that strange land—it seemed as if the little breezes, even, smelled yellow.

The tales of our childhood about topsy-turvy land came to our minds as our ragged-queued rickshaw men whisked us around corners and we found that we were expected to point them the way instead of their showing it to us strangers. Newcomers must beware if they do not want to be landed in some unsavory corner of the native city where no word of English is spoken.

As we had a guide, we were delivered in good order at our destination. Our first night on Chinese soil was to test whether we could stand the alarms of life in the interior. We were regaled at dinner with stories of the

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famous Shanghai riot that had occurred shortly before our arrival, and also with detailed accounts of the massacre that had recently taken place in the south. It was all part of the day's work to those hardened to the vicissitudes of life in China, but made a lasting impression on our unaccustomed minds.

That night, on retiring, the accounts still haunted my brain, and, unable to sleep, I went over the sensations of the participants in those horrors. I must have been in bed about two hours when suddenly I heard shouts in the distance, then what seemed like hundreds of hurrying footsteps and the most awful screeching. I hastily arose from my bed and ran to the window. I listened, shaking with fear, fully convinced that the rioters were coming, thirsting for foreign blood. I waited for the people of the house to sound the alarm and call us together to make our escape, but the house slept peacefully on, while every moment the din grew wilder; finally it swept past altogether.

"They have gone," I thought, "for some larger prey, but they will be back." I waited in vain for some summons, and finally decided to try to sleep, as our friends did not seem to be apprehensive. I spent a restless night, however, and came down to breakfast in pensive mood.

"What was that terrible noise last night?" I inquired. "Was it a riot?" My friends laughingly replied: "No, only a wedding party."

"A wedding party! Why, what was that blood-curdling yelling and screeching?"

"That was their singing and musical instruments."

"Well," I ejaculated, fervently, "if that was a wedding, may I never hear a riot!"

In the weeks that followed we had the diversion of watching the world's greatest pageant as it passed under our balcony. Chinese dandies in silks and satins, with the ever-present fan held to protect the eyes from the piercing rays of a semi-tropical sun; ladies in gayly decorated sedan chairs, and women of the poorer classes pushing wheelbarrows with three or four people in them; regiments of tall Sikhs with the steel flashing in their turbans; marines from the battleships of every nation lying in the harbor; lightly clad Lascars; wedding and funeral processions with their accompanying din—one funeral procession took an hour to pass, and the embroidered robes of the Buddhist and Taoist priests fractured the Tenth Commandment for one spectator; and, last but not least, a monkey in the courtyard across the way that afforded amusement not only to the little Portuguese children that owned it but to the opposite neighbors as well.

One hot morning a little file of rickshaws passed and drew up at the front door, and there followed the usual squabble of liberally paid coolies protesting over the fare. Too much engrossed with the foreign street scene to pay much attention to the arrival of a few Americans, I did not even turn my head until I heard a baby voice at my elbow, "Auntie, auntie, here we are!" and, looking down, beheld a mite, all dimples, tugging at my skirts.

Lois was right; there they were, and the proper things were said and done—the things one always does to a niece one has never seen before, and to the parents whom one has not beheld for five years, and has traveled half-way round the world to visit.

Behind them stood a quiet, unassuming figure clad in the blue cotton coat and black trousers of her native town. She waited, with a bright smile on her face, absorbed in the happiness of others and watching with surprise the demonstrative ways of these strange foreigners.

Finally we came to ourselves enough, and Li Sao-tze was presented; we liked her from the first for her gentle, modest ways and her unselfishness. It was explained that while we were in the mountains she was to serve as *amah* and baby's nurse, as she was away from home.

The family belonged to the scholar class—the gentry, we would call it—but they were in reduced circumstances and glad to eke out their income in this manner, and would not lose face thereby. Her husband was dead and her sons "ne'er-do-weels," and we imagined it was a comfort to her to be rid of them for a season.

If Shanghai had been a wonder city to us, it is hard to imagine what it was to Li Sao-tze. Try to realize yourself your own sensations if you had lived in the third or fourth century in a small country town and were taken, without warning or preparation, to visit a modern city with all its conveniences and inventions; how excited you would be, and how you would open your eyes, and what stupid questions you would ask!

Not so Li Sao-tze; she kept her quiet way, unabashed and apparently unimpressed.

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Almost without being told she learned how to turn on the electricity, and, though her only light at home had been a feeble wick floating in oil, she never changed her expression when the bright light flooded her room. She saw the bells ring at the push of a finger and a servant appear as if by magic; she saw carriages run along smooth streets without horses or men to pull them, when in her native town the roads were full of mud-holes and the élite were carried in sedan chairs, the middle class went on mule, and the poor walked; yet not one of these things moved her Oriental calm or called forth any amazement. Often I longed to break through that outer shell and know the thoughts that stirred below, but my lack of Chinese and her idea of good breeding always prevented.

Li Sao-tze was not stupid, however; she went about her duties in a quiet, competent way, very different from the rougher country women, who never could be trained to be good servants. It was amazing how softly and swiftly she did her work on those little cramped feet of hers, not over three inches long. Every day throughout that long summer in the mountains we would meet her in the narrow winding paths carrying little Lois. In the evening, when we returned home after a picnic or a tea, we would find Li Sao-tze standing at the top of the bungalow steps with the child in her arms, looking over the mountains, where range piled on range like ocean billows, toward the glories of the sunset beyond. In this case truly East and West had met and mingled, for the baby arms were twined tightly around Li Sao-tze's neck, and one needed only a quick glance at Li Sao-tze's face to see how she regarded her charge. It was a pretty picture—the dark impassive Oriental features and the laughing "lellow-haired" mite with her pink cheeks and dimples. We would expostulate with Li Sao-tze that her baby was too large and too heavy for her to carry with her bound feet; as soon as our backs were turned the little tyrant would say, "Li Sao-tze, *hao* me!" and that willing slave would hasten to carry her. A Chinese woman can never refuse a child anything, and the exclamation, "Why, she wanted it!" is sufficient excuse for giving a baby anything from a banana to a carving-knife.

In August Li Sao-tze came to her mistress about a strange lump she had had for some time. "Perhaps Sing Si Mu would tell Sing Sien Sung; they say he is a very clever doctor, and he would give her some foreign medicine that would take it away?"

"But, Li Sao-tze, Sing Sien Sung would have to see the lump before he could give you the medicine."

"Oh, I never could let him do that! That is not our custom." Then, brightening, she continued: "But I will show it to you, Sing Si Mu, and you can tell him all about it."

It took two months' persuasion before Li Sao-tze could gain confidence to see the foreign doctor. By that time the lump had grown considerably, and he sadly pronounced the word that makes a foreign patient turn sick and faint. He gently explained to her that if she were operated on immediately he might save her life; otherwise she could not live two years. She took the news very quietly and with no sign of fear or emotion. She said she would never be operated on, and we knew her sons were terribly anti-foreign and would never allow it, even if she would permit it.

It was a heavy cloud over our happiness to feel that this gentle creature was marked for such a painful death—bad enough in America, but infinitely worse in China, where the sick have no pity shown and where the native quacks put the sufferer to horrid torture by way of treatment. I suppose Li Sao-tze ought to have been glad in the thought that her religion was like her skin, and been really happy that it taught little of tenderness to the afflicted; but it could not console us.

We returned with sad hearts to the inland station. We knew when we reached there that Li Sao-tze's sons would not allow her to remain as *amah* any longer, much as she would have liked to do so. She had shown strange confidence in being willing to go away with us at all, and had not even taken some earth with her from her native town, as the other *amah* had done, to mix in her tea to keep her from homesickness and the dangerous *feng shui* (evil spirits) of a strange place. When we reached our destination, it turned out as we had feared. Li Sao-tze was forced to give up her position; her gentle reign was over, and then began the reign of terror under Weh Sao-tze, the Militant.

Li Sao-tze continued to come for sewing, and we saw her nearly every day. Very shocked was she over Weh Sao-tze's rough ways, and she would reprimand her for her coarse language to the children. She came regularly to the women's meetings and would

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repeat the verses so sweetly and so understandingly that her teachers were sure she was a true Christian in her heart, though she did not dare to say so on acoount of her sons.

Of all the hymns, she liked to sing "Jesus Loves Me" the best, "because," she said, it "rested her heart." Poor Li Sao-tze! it might well rest her heart—precious little love had she known from the time she had been born, "only an unwelcome girl," to this day when her sons grudged her food. Over her cradle had been sung the usual Chinese lullaby:

"If a boy is born, in a downy bed
Let him be wrapped in purple and red:
Apparel bright and jewels bring
For the noble child who will serve the king.

"If a girl is born, in coarse cloth wound,
With a tile for a toy, let her lie on the ground;
In her bread or her beer be her praise or her blame,
And let her not sully her parents' good name."

Yet Li Sao-tze's lot was only the common one of Chinese women.

One day she failed to appear at the women's class or for her sewing. When she had been absent for two or three days, her mistress inquired about her from a neighbor, who informed her that Li Sao-tze was ill. She hastened to see her, and found her truly very ill, and sent immediately for the foreign doctor, who pronounced the case typhoid fever. He prescribed some remedies and tried to persuade her sons to take her to the foreign hospital, where she could have proper treatment; they would not listen to him, and as soon as his back was turned threw out his medicines and called in a native quack. Each day the foreigners visited the wretched hovel Li Sao-tze called home, bringing soup and medicine, to find the house filled with a crowd of curious neighbors, talking at the top of their lungs, and each one suggesting some peculiar or deadly mixture—a truly restful atmosphere for a fever patient! Li Sao-tze bore it all with her usual patience, but grew gradually weaker; at length one night she was very ill, and one of her sons climbed on the roof of the house and the other went out on the mountain-side to represent her spirit; then the son on the roof would call to the spirit on the mountain to return, and the son on the mountain would cry in a weird falsetto, "Coming, coming!" and all the while Li Sao-tse lay below and listened. The next day Li Sao-tze's mistress found her excited out of her former calm; amid the noise and confusion the sufferer clutched her friend's hand and whispered that her sons thought she was going to die, and that they had threatened to carry her out on the mountain-side, as her spirit would haunt them if she died in the house. Her mistress knew if they did that Li Sao-tze would probably be torn in pieces by wild dogs; she did her best to reassure her, but there was nothing she could do to prevent such an act; the sons had absolute power and could have caused the death of all the foreigners if she had interfered. She went home heavy-hearted—I wonder if my friend would blame her for failing to see any happiness in the Taoist religion on that day?

The suspense continued for several days, and as we lay on our comfortable beds at night listening to the shrill autumn winds howling down the hillside we were haunted by thoughts of the awful fate hanging over our gentle Li Sao-tze, and we would shiver to think that at that very moment she might be out in the cold alone. Fortunately she rallied toward the last and then passed away suddenly, before her sons could execute their threats.

No Christian ceremony, so well suited to Li Sao-tze's quiet spirit, was permitted; instead, the wild cry of the hired mourners, the feasting, the burning of paper money, and other rites of a Chinese funeral were her lot; but we drew a sigh of relief that her heart was rested at last, away from further suffering.

Now that the long spring evenings have come Li Sao-tze's daughter-in-law will suddenly stop in the midst of her gossiping with the other women of the courtyard and say with a laugh, "Well, I must be off to wail a wail or two on my mother-in-law's grave." With a bowl of food in her hand for the departed spirit, she will go out on the mountain-side where Li Sao-tze sleeps and make the soft spring night hideous with those blood-curdling wails so heartrending to a stranger until he realizes that such mourning is purely perfunctory.

Thus in China comedy and tragedy ever walk hand in hand.

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HELP FOR THE FARMER

BY CARL VROOMAN
ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

WITHIN the past three years the United States Department of Agriculture has got a new ideal and undertaken a new task.

Bill Smith lives on a rather thin "forty" a long way from anywhere, and he has pretty rough sledding trying to pay his taxes every year and keep his children in shoes and school-books. He does his best, according to local standards, but the results are not encouraging. His clover is spotted. Even where it doesn't turn yellow and die out the catch is poor and the stand thin. Everything else sags with the clover. He doesn't seem to be able to get a good toe-hold. Bill Smith is in danger of selling out and moving to town to try his hand at teaming or something of the sort.

Hitherto the Department of Agriculture hasn't had much comfort to offer Bill Smith. A few bulletins, which he might or might not be able to understand, were about all Bill Smith could hope to get from the Department under the old dispensation. At best the Department could only tell him how to get a good catch of clover and boost his yields in general.

Now, however, the Department wants to do more than that for Bill Smith. It wants to show him, not merely that his spotted clover-field lacks lime or drainage or what not, but that his system is wrong—that his farm is too small to yield him a decent living if he sticks to general farming, after the fashion of his neighbors on "eighties" and "hundred and sixties." The Department wants to show Bill Smith, not merely how to grow crops, but what is much more important, how to make money growing crops. It wants to point out the best thing for Bill Smith to do with the means at his disposal—whether to try some intensive form of farming, to rent more land, or to sell out and go where he can get more acres for his capital. It wants, eventually, to be able to send an expert out to see Bill Smith and talk his problems over with him and tell him what to do. In a word, the Department is getting down to brass tacks. Practical agricultural economics is the new ideal, and helping Bill Smith make more money is the new job.

Getting down to brass tacks, in this instance, has involved a process of changing front, of shifting from an attitude which was primarily scientific to one which is primarily economic. Hitherto the Department has been mainly an organization for scientific research, for running down and nailing agricultural facts. Now, while still a vast and highly efficient organization for scientific research, its science has been given an economic bias, a dollars-and-cents slant, so that it may readily be turned to practical account by the farmer, to whom science in the abstract is nothing, but to whom in the concrete it is vital. Science butters no parsnips unless it can be translated into terms of economics. That is what the Department is trying to do now. In a word, it is trying to help the farmer make more money.

To this end the Department has been reorganized with a view to bringing farm economics to the fore. An Office of Markets and Rural Organization has been established. The Office of Farm Management has been reorganized as a part of the Secretary's office. The Office of Experiment Stations has been reorganized as the "States Relations Service." An Office of Information has been established and a weekly publication for Departmental collaborators and the press started.

The Office of Markets and Rural Organization was established to help the farmer sort, pack, ship, and sell his products to best advantage, and to encourage co-operative organization for buying and selling as well as for social ends.

The Office of Farm Management was reorganized to make it a clearing-house for the information gathered by the other bureaus, to serve as a co-ordinating agency through which the products of the specialists can be mixed in the right proportion to make a balanced ration of advice applicable to Bill Smith's farm or any similar farm.

The States Relations Service assumes the tremendous task of administering the new Smith-Lever Law, which provides millions of dollars—*four million dollars this year*—for the work of carrying to the farmer the best advice at the command of the Department

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and of demonstrating the value of such advice by actual practice on the farms of co-operating farmers. There are now over one thousand county agents carrying on this work.

The Office of Information was created to help bridge the gap between the archives of the Department and the farmers—to get material to the papers while the facts are fresh. The Weekly News Letter was established for the same purpose. It is sent to the newspapers and the agricultural press, with the privilege of reprinting, either with or without credit.

Along with this formal reorganization went an informal change in the trend of the work of the entire Department to make it conform to the new ideal. There is scarcely a bureau in the Department in which there has not been inaugurated work on some new project or projects more directly involving the economic and social betterment of the farmer than anything that had been projected before.

Take the Bureau of Chemistry, for example: The Government chemists are experimenting in bread-making, the rock-bottom household art. They have begun to investigate sole leather—with a sort of walking machine designed to test the wearing qualities of different leathers. They are working out a method of home tanning for farmers. They have found out how to kill flies before they are born by putting borax or hellebore in the manure in which the maggots develop. They have stopped the shipment of oysters from beds polluted with city sewage. And they have done a hundred other things of equal practical importance.

Take the Bureau of Animal Industry: The pathologists of this Bureau have worked out what seems to be an effective way of fighting hog cholera with a serum. They are taking it direct to the farmers of certain districts and trying it out. In three counties where the serum was tried the loss from hog cholera was reduced from twenty-eight per cent to seven per cent in one year, and to 1.7 per cent in two years. At the same time the production of hogs in those counties was increased seventy-five per cent. Last year the Bureau released from quarantine in the tick eradication campaign a territory larger than the whole of Ireland. It has started a big work in live-stock demonstration in the South, has begun work in the classification of wool, and has undertaken the inspection of imported meats in addition to the work of domestic inspection.

Witness these miscellaneous new projects and achievements, picked at random from the work of the several bureaus:

Establishment of official corn grades. These have now been generally adopted by elevators, and farmers are profiting from their opportunity to market their corn according to grade.

Inauguration of extensive farm management surveys, designed to bring out the fundamental principles of good farming as established by the practice of the average successful farmer.

Discovery of a way of making potash out of the seaweed of the Pacific coast. This promises much to the farmer, now that our supply of potash has been cut off by the war.

Development of a system of blueberry culture which opens the way to the profitable use of acid soils.

Investigations and experiments begun in road-making.

Work begun with a view to fostering the co-operative organization of farmers.

Investigation of the possibilities of marketing direct to the consumer by parcel post or express.

Campaign started looking to the betterment of social and educational conditions in country communities.

Plans made for the organization of co-operative rural credit association and organization begun.

Study made of the economic effect of the malaria mosquito upon farm labor in the South.

Expansion of demonstration work through girls' and boys' clubs, so as to bring the Department in closer touch with the home life of the farm.

Campaign for diversification in the South. The slump in cotton, caused by the European war, gave the Department a golden opportunity to push this work, and in the past year the cotton acreage was cut about six million acres, while the acreage of corn, oats, and hay increased in proportion.

These sample activities, all either inaugurated or put on a more successful working basis within the past two or three years, are significant of the spirit in which the Department is getting down to work under the inspiration of its new ideal of service to the farmer. The Department's hat is in the ring

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so far as its determination to tackle problems in agricultural economics is concerned. It has been in the ring for three years. More than one hundred years have passed since the Department of Agriculture was first conceived; more than fifty years have passed since the Department was actually organized as such; yet in the two years just passed it has made greater progress along the lines of agricultural economics than it made in the half-century that went before.

The legacy to agriculture of the past century has been agronomy—a vast but largely undigested and unco-ordinated mass of information about how to grow things. The forces which have been set to work within the past three years will, I believe, liberate to the farmers of the country at large this mass of largely inert knowledge and make it available for practical use. During this short period things have been accomplished or started which, to my mind, are equal in importance to all the other things that have been done for agriculture in the fifty years past. The passage of the Smith-Lever Act—which virtually means provision for the establishment of a deputy secretary of agriculture for every county in the country—is alone an achievement of epoch-making importance. It means that the Department has at last secured the means of getting into personal touch with the farmers. The creation of the Office of Markets and Rural Organization means that at last the Department has ceased to focus its vast energies solely upon problems of production and that henceforth it means to cope with the equally important problems of distribution.

These are problems that concern, not merely the farmer, but every commercial enterprise directly or indirectly connected with the agricultural activities of the Nation, and, in a very direct fashion, the ultimate consumer. Any improvement in the methods of marketing farm products, as well as any improvement in the methods of agricultural production, accrues to the benefit, not merely of the persons directly involved in our agricultural enterprises, but of every man, woman, and child in the country. It is not alone to the interest of Bill Smith that he be shown how to grade his crops for market; it is to the interest of the commonwealth at large, for it tends to increase the sum total of our National efficiency.

Ultimate efficiency in this regard will be achieved, I am confident, through co-operative organization. Already the farmers of this country have done much along this line. Witness the co-operative elevators and creameries, and the co-operative fruit-growers' organizations now in the field. But the co-operative movement is still in great need of encouragement and guidance. In most of our States the laws relative to such enterprises are amazingly inadequate. The Department of Agriculture is doing its utmost to remedy this situation and to put co-operative organization in this country on a sound business basis.

In like manner the Department is doing all that it can to foster a sentiment favorable to the establishment of an adequate system of rural credits. I believe that I am not overstating the matter when I say that a rural credit system is as essential to the further development of agriculture in this country as is a more widespread application of scientific methods in agriculture. Bill Smith needs more money as badly as he needs more science. It is impossible for him to make good use of the new scientific agricultural methods without having better credit facilities.

We are preaching more and better live stock to the farmers all over the country, but it takes money to buy high-grade or pure-bred boars and brood sows, bulls and heifers. Ninety-day credit is little better than none to the farmer who wants to change his grain farm to a live-stock farm. A banking system which has been built up with an eye single to the needs of urban communities is of little use to Bill Smith. He wants a banking system that will enable him to get long-time loans, commensurate with the time it takes for the average agricultural enterprise to reach profitable maturity. The Department of Agriculture is doing all that it can to make the way clear for constructive legislation along rural credit lines.

Altogether, I think I am safe in saying that the work that has been inaugurated by the present Administration has been in the highest sense constructive and practical. It has been an epoch-making work, for these fundamental steps which have been taken are the enabling acts that will eventually put American agriculture for the first time on a sound economic footing. Not all of the plans that have been devised along this line have been put into actual operation yet, but the ball is rolling and picking up speed from day to day. If Bill Smith sends out a signal

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of distress to-morrow, he will stand a better chance of getting practical help than he did yesterday. If he is in the territory opened up under the Smith-Lever Act, he may have a demonstration agent on his trail before the week is out. At any rate, the time is not far distant when nobody will be so remote from Washington that he cannot command the sympathetic co-operation of the Department in solving his individual farming problems.

KNOLL PAPERS

UNDER THE APPLE TREES[1]

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

IN one of the essays which John Burroughs has collected in his latest volume, entitled "Under the Apple Trees," the author, in describing Henri Bergson, unconsciously describes himself:

Those who go to Bergson for strictly scientific conclusions will find bread where they were looking for a stone; but those who go to him in the spirit of life will find life—will see him work a change in scientific facts like that which life works in inorganic matter. His method is always that of the literary artist; and looking at the processes of organic evolution through his eyes is like looking into the mental and spiritual processes of a great creative artist.

Like Henri Bergson, John Burroughs is a scientist and a philosopher, and, even more than Bergson, a prose poet. He studies and vividly describes the phenomena of nature; he looks beneath those phenomena to see what is the life which creates and controls them; and he has the ability of a literary artist which enables him to describe and interpret nature to less careful observers and less spiritually thoughtful thinkers.

What does John Burroughs see?

Nature, of course—her forms, her colors, her habits: "the gray weather-worn rocks;" "how the tooth of time has eaten out the layers of the soft old red sandstone;" "the abruptness of the change from one species of rock to another, as marked and sudden as a change in a piece of masonry from brick to stone, or from stone to iron;" "the winged seeds, . . . the delicate parachute of the dandelion-seed, and the balloon of the thistle;" the habits of the birds, the bees, the squirrels, of all living inhabitants of the farm. Here is a pretty picture, as indicative of the character of the author as of the birds which he describes:

His mate, or at least a female, comes, and I overhear the two in soft, gentle conversation. When I appear upon the scene, the female scurries away in alarm, calling as she retreats, as if for the male to follow; but he does not. He eyes me for a moment, and then sidles round behind the trunk of the tree, and as I go back to my table I hear his hammer again. Very soon the female is back and I hear their conversation going on as before.

But John Burroughs is not content with describing phenomena. He inquires into the life which produces and controls them. The materialist can see in nature nothing but a wonderful machine; the physical psychologist, nothing in men but nerve currents carrying messages from the brain to the various organs—like one who should measure the dynamic force of an electric current on a telegraphic wire, but should be utterly unable to read the message which the wire carries, or even so much as to surmise that there is a message.

What message does John Burroughs read in nature? What mental and spiritual processes does he discern in the great creative artist?

He sees in nature some element of chance. He even recognizes it as a legitimate, or at all events a real, question, whether life itself is not a child of chance: "Whether the beginning of life upon the globe was itself accidental—a fortuitous chemical reaction—is a question upon which our natural philosophers are divided." But, though there may be in nature some element of chance, he is quite

[1] Under the Apple Trees. By John Burroughs. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.25. A collection of essays written out of doors describing and interpreting the phenomena of nature.

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certain that chance does not account for all the phenomena of nature. It is true that—

> The fortuitous among chemical bodies is quite a different thing from the fortuitous among ponderable bodies. We might shake together the parts of a watch for all eternity and not get that adjustment of the wheels and springs that makes a watch. If a thousand of brick are dumped upon the ground, is there any probability that they will take the form of a house? Or if the letters of the alphabet are shaken up together in a bag, is there the slightest chance that they will arrange themselves into words, and that the words will arrange themselves into intelligent sentences?

In this case the parts have no attraction for one another. But "among chemical compounds, out of which living bodies are built up, there rules the selective force of chemical affinity." Nevertheless in chemistry there is something more than chance:

> The elements select their partners. It is a marriage in which two literally become one. Chemistry is on the road to life; chemical transformations lead up to the transformations we call vital. . . . If the worm, as Emerson says, "is striving to be man," the clod is no less striving to be worm. The crystal prepares the way for the cell. The flowing currents of air and water are forerunners of the flowing currents of the living body.

This upward tendency is the essential fact in evolution. In truth, the doctrine of evolution cannot be stated except in terms which imply intelligence, purpose, and improvement. To quote Mr. Burroughs again:

> "No statement of the universe," says the wise Emerson, "can have any soundness that does not admit of its ascending effort." Is it thinkable that man could have arisen from the manlike apes by the mere clash and friction of an irrational environment alone? Is one man superior to another by reason of outward conditions and the discipline of life alone? Is the secret of Plato or Paul or Shakespeare or Lincoln in the keeping of pans and pots? Man arose from his humbler ancestors because the manward impulse, in some way beyond our ken, was inherent in the evolutionary impulse.

This word "inherent" is the key to John Burroughs's philosophy. He thinks of a Creator, but his Creator is not an omnipotent mechanic creating the world from without, but a living Spirit creating and directing it from within. Life within creates and controls. But this life within is something more than a mere blind cosmic force; something more than an infinite and eternal energy. It is intelligent and purposeful. "Intelligence seems inseparable from life." And yet, evident as intelligence is in some of the phenomena of nature, there are other phenomena from which, in Mr. Burroughs's view, intelligent purpose is conspicuously absent.

> The ingenious devices of certain plants to insure cross-fertilization are, to me, just as much an evidence of what we must call mind, though of mind of a vastly different order from our own, as any model or device in our patent offices, while the forms of the rocks, the hills, the shore, the streams, the rivers, are in no sense purposive.

It will be seen from this sentence that Mr. Burroughs in his philosophy is not controlled by any preconceived assumptions. He does not take intelligence or benevolence for granted. He has no axioms; no "we must believe" or "we must suppose." He faces all the facts of life, not only with courage, but with audacity. He does not shut out from his observation the apparent crudities, imperfections, failures, and cruelties in nature.

> The creative energy shows itself to be very human, very fallible, often vacillating and short-sighted. Indeed, man is the image of his Maker in this respect. God has gone on with his work very much as man goes on with his—blundering, experimenting, but doing the best he could.

I admire Mr. Burroughs's clearness of vision and his frankness in report; but I do not equally admire his dogmatism in interpretation. A little modest agnosticism might recognize the truth that there may be a higher value which we fail to see in the apparent cruelties of life, as there are higher values in the maiming and the mutilation perpetrated in the surgical ward of a hospital which a child cannot possibly comprehend.

The philosophy of John Burroughs will not satisfy the theologian who has his standardized theory of creation and the Creator by which he measures all philosophy; and his definitions of the Eternal and man's relation to the Eternal to which all philosophy must conform or be condemned.

Nor will it satisfy the materialist who poohpoohs at all attempts to interpret life, who counts futile all endeavors to find "sermons in stones, books in the running brooks, and good in everything;" who regards such in-

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terpretations as fit only for dreamers; who can read without emotion Mr. Burroughs's beautiful chapter on the marriage of the birds, giving spiritual interpretation to "The Master Instinct," and inspiring the sympathetic reader anew with the realization that "love is the greatest thing in the world." The materialist who practically denies in the face of the most evident facts of life that natural phenomena "stand related to our mental and emotional condition and edification," and dismisses all attempts to read the message which is ever passing over the wires as mere idle speculation, will find nothing in "Under the Apple Trees" to attract him.

But, without accepting all of Mr. Burroughs's interpretations, I welcome the fundamental truths to which he gives expression, as Henri Bergson has done in "Creative Evolution," and which I venture to express in my own terms as follows:

Life is and always must remain a mystery. The Infinite Power who creates and controls transcends all our defining. The very attempt to define God denies that he is Infinite. But all that we see of life justifies us in at least two conclusions.

God is not a mechanic making a machine by processes from without; he works from within. He fashions and controls the universe, not as the sculptor fashions the plastic clay, but as man's spirit fashions and controls his body. Creation is not a product, but a process. Spirit is always moving upon the face of the waters, always bringing order out of chaos. Every day is a creative day. As I am writing these lines and look out of my window upon the grass, the flowers, the trees, I hear him saying, Let the earth bring forth grass, the herb yielding seed, and the fruit tree yielding after his kind, whose seed is in itself, upon the earth. I hear him saying, Let the waters bring forth abundantly the moving creature that hath life, and fowl that may fly above the earth each after their kind. I hear him saying, Let the earth bring forth the living creature after his kind, cattle, and creeping thing, and beast of the earth after his kind. And in myriads of homes I see him breathing the breath of life into the babe in the mother's womb and calling on the fathers and mothers, as fellow-workers with him, to make of their babes men and women in God's image and after his likeness.

And I see him doing this in spite of obstacles and hindrances and by the use of instruments. That he is all-powerful does not mean to me that he works without instruments and knows no difficulties. If he worked without instruments and encountered no difficulties, there would be no more opportunity for him to exercise wisdom than there was for Aladdin when he had only to rub his lamp and prefer his request. Since God has made man in his image, it is in man I look for his image and in man's work for the interpretation of God's work. And therefore I see in the creative work of the farmer, the mechanic, the engineer, the architect, the artist—all sharers in the world's productive industry—an interpretation of the Creator's work. And in the ministrations of man's merciful love I see the interpretation of the Father's mercy, in the hopes and aspirations of humanity I hear the Father's upward calling to his children, in the Supreme Man of history I see at once the goal and the inspiration of human endeavor, and in the difficulties which Jesus confronted, the sufferings which he endured, and the patient courage with which he plucked victory out of defeat I see the supreme interpretation of the spirit and work of the Eternal.

Mr. Burroughs has told us of the secret of life which he has seen when studying nature "Under the Apple Trees" in his orchard. I wish there were some one with equal clearness of vision, moral courage, and spiritual insight to tell us what he sees of life as it is interpreted by that spirit of love, service, and self-sacrifice which has its greatest historic illustration in the Garden of the olive trees and in the cross.

The Knoll, Cornwall-on-Hudson.

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THE BIBLE THE MOST POPULAR BOOK IN THE WORLD[1]

AN impressive event of the present year has been the celebration of the centennial of the American Bible Society. Perhaps no event has aroused a greater, more varied, and more widespread appreciation. And yet we find in "America," the Jesuit weekly, this remarkable statement:

The American Bible Society has just completed a century of endeavor, and throughout the country there has been ringing a chorus of congratulation. Almost the only voice not heard is that of the Catholic Church. . . . What is the reason for this attitude of hostility?

The first reason is that the American Bible Society, from its very inception, has raised the standard of revolt. The Church, from the time of the Council of Trent, has repeatedly forbidden that any versions of the sacred Scriptures should be printed without the sanction and approval of the Bishops or the Apostolic See. . . . The American Bible Society has refused to recognize the existence of this law. Unauthorized and unguided by an authoritative teaching body, this association has during the past century promoted the translation of the Scriptures. . . . In every copy thus translated or distributed there have been passages more or less tinctured with dogmatic error; from every copy, too, whole books of the sacred text have been omitted. How, then, could the Church congratulate any society on such an achievement?

Besides, the Church wishes by her opposition to emphasize her entire disapproval of the underlying principle which is the motive force of all the activity of the Bible Societies. It is a cardinal Protestant principle that the Scriptures are the one and all-sufficient rule of faith; that the individual reading of the Bible, without assistance from notes or commentaries, is the sure guide to revealed religious truth. Not such is the doctrine of the Church, which has always held that the Scriptures are a supplementary, not the primary, and much less the exclusive, source of revelation; that Christ's doctrines, in the economy he himself established, were to be conveyed to the world by the preaching of the Apostles and their successors; and that Holy Writ is to be interpreted, not at the individual reader's pleasure, but strictly in accordance with the sense of living tradition which has come down unbroken from the Apostles. This doctrine the American Bible Society denies; in its opinion each reader may interpret the Bible as he thinks best.

This is, so far as we know, the only jarring note. Certainly in the minds of the vast majority of men the centennial celebration marks the development, not only of popular reading of the Bible, but also the development of the Christian interests of this country all over the Republic—aye, and of the reaching out and ministering by the American Bible Society to the great mission fields of the world, co-operating with the Boards of Foreign Missions in their translations and revisions of the Scriptures, and in the publication and circulation of them under all sorts of adversities and hardships and with all manner of victories.

The man in the street is not very much impressed by a statement that, say, 234,567 Bibles were sold during a given period. On the other hand, if we can say that the Bible is the best selling book in the world, it *will* interest him.

Dr. Dwight's history gives, not only to religious workers, but to the man who does not care much about religious propaganda, an immense mass of information, collated in no dry-as-dust manner, but in a graphic way to interest every one.

In the first place, we are shown what the missionary impulse towards Bible propaganda has meant, especially during National crises. Such a crisis occurred early in the last century, and by 1815 there were more than a hundred little local Bible Societies in the United States for the purpose of providing Bibles for the poor who had no means of supplying themselves. In 1816 the American Bible Society was formed. It had been preceded by State societies, as, for instance, in Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey.

The old British and Foreign Bible Society heartily congratulated each of these new societies and made grants of money to them. Those connected with the American societies frequently expressed their affection for the British Society, under the just title "venerable parent." But there was another than a purely American impulse. There was also the missionary influence. Almost every one of the new societies had in its constitution a provision for extending its benefactions, when

[1] The Centennial History of the American Bible Society. By Henry Otis Dwight. The Macmillan Company, New York. Set (2 vols.), $2.

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possible, to heathen lands, and not only to them but to the needs of our own frontiersmen, causing the immortal Samuel J. Mills, when a student at Williams College, to query whether "poor dark Africa must wait until all in America had consented to drink of the water of life."

Accordingly, Mills and some other students declared themselves ready to give their lives to work as foreign missionaries. This was back in 1810. The young men so impressed the leading clergymen of their acquaintance that the result was the formation in that year of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.

But Mills was not one of the five chosen by the Board to go abroad. Personally disappointed, he was called to missionary work at home, and this connected him with the organization of the American Bible Society. When the American Government made the Louisiana Purchase, there was so little popular knowledge of the people in the new territory that in 1812 the Massachusetts Missionary Society, in co-operation with the Connecticut Missionary Society, appointed J. M. Schermerhorn as missionary to explore the West and Southwest, and chose young Mills as a companion to Mr. Schermerhorn. At Nashville the two young missionaries were introduced to General Andrew Jackson, then on the point of starting for Natchez with fifteen hundred soldiers, the war with Great Britain having just begun. General Jackson asked the young men to go as far as Natchez on his steamer, and from there they went on a flatboat to New Orleans, returning from that city overland to Nashville, a distance of five hundred miles through heavy forests, thick canebrakes, and bridgeless rivers, and with wolves, bears, and rattlesnakes ready to dispute the right of way. Of course they found people who were without the Bible, not only in this but in other regions of the great country west of the Alleghanies, and Mills founded many Bible Societies. In 1814 Mills was appointed to make another tour over practically the same ground. This expedition brought Mills to New Orleans in 1815, a month after General Jackson's victory over Sir Edward Pakenham and the English army.

Mills was the man for the moment. He was on fire with the tremendous needs of the West and the South. He saw that the existing Bible Societies needed union, co-operation, resources, and that a National institution should be formed. He kept hammering at this, and in 1816, in the Garden Street Dutch Reformed Church of New York City, the American Bible Society came into being. The very street on which that church fronted is now hidden under the name of Exchange Place.

There were great names among the men who met in that old church—Eliphalet Nott, of Union College; Samuel Bayard, of Princeton; Lyman Beecher, of Connecticut; John Jay, of Westchester; William Gray, of Massachusetts; Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina, and others.

And so the Society was started. What need to describe its course? One imagines that it is known of all men. Yet this is not so. It is all very well to say that the Society has placed in the United States some seventy million copies of the Scriptures besides those circulated in foreign lands—a total of one hundred and seventeen million copies. It is all very well to say that the benefits of this distribution can by no means be limited to Americans, pure and simple; but they have also touched the millions of immigrants flocking to this country, have touched the colored people, the Indians, and especially in these later years that class deprived of so much that makes for joy in life—the blind.

There is a good deal more than this. By a distinct provision the Society helps missions in their translations and publications of the Scriptures and by supporting translators. This co-operation has resulted in Bibles in a hundred and sixty-four different languages. This is an immense feature of the Society's work. It is indicated by the fact that now sixteen power-presses are working, at times day and night, in New York to keep up with the demands, and that abroad there are other presses engaged by the Society, as, for instance, in Constantinople, Beirût, Bangkok, Shanghai, Yokohama, and Seoul. In this foreign field the Society has distributed a mass of Scriptures which has, of course, a direct relation to the success of missionaries. Thus the work of the missionary societies and of the American Bible Society are indissolubly interwoven.

So we come back to the fact which is going to interest not merely the man of religious impulses, but the man who cares little about religious propaganda—namely, the fact that the Bible is now the most popular book in the world. And it is the American Bible Society which, we believe, more than any other agency, has made it such.

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THE READER'S VIEW

THE FARMER: MORE JUSTICE AND LESS PATRONAGE

I have read with much interest the article of Secretary McAdoo on the pending Merchant Marine Bill in The Outlook; also articles that from time to time touch upon the profit coming to the farmers of this country from increased prices due to the world war.

It is possible you may be willing to hear from a farmer the effect of these conditions, instead of listening entirely to what others say of them.

As chairman of the Grange Service Committee, whose duty it is to consider these matters, representing the fifty thousand Grangers of this State, and having been engaged for more than twenty-five years as a farmer and shipper, I can speak from personal experience as well as observation.

Let us consider first the increase in rates. February 10, 1910, the average rate upon farm products—grain, flour, cotton, apples, and hay—from Boston and Portland to Liverpool, England, was $2.69 per ton. September 1, 1912, these rates had advanced to $6.72 per ton; 1914, to $14; and December, 1915, to $31.50 per ton of 2,000 pounds.

What dividends did these lines then pay? Turn to page 39, Special Diplomatic and Consular Reports, 1913, and you will find that during the period from 1908 to 1913, inclusive, well-equipped lines earned from eight per cent to fifty per cent, aside from all expenses and depreciation.

Referring to the "Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance," you will find that our foreign commerce totaled approximately 56,436,373 tons in 1912. The cost of carrying our foreign commerce per year is generally spoken of as $300,000,000, but, taking the rate from our Eastern ports to Liverpool as a basis, at $6.72 per ton, the cost in 1912 would be $369,256,146. (The actual cost would exceed this, as this is a short haul.)

The rates established September 1, 1912, remained practically the same during the fiscal year of 1913. The records referred to on page 41, Senate Document 601, Sixty-third Congress, show that the regular lines and companies operating "tramp" freighters earned from thirty per cent to fifty per cent.

During the year 1915 the volume of foreign commerce greatly increased, but to show the relative increase in cost of transportation let us consider the same amount, and we find that $31.50 per ton would give them a surplus over and above their dividends of thirty per cent to fifty per cent of $1,408,490,603.

The average man like myself can understand how much this vast sum is by comparison. What would this surplus of one year do?

The entire disbursements of the United States Government during the year 1912 were	$656,623,597
The total valuation of the State of Maine, Census of 1910, was	451,780,119
Cost of 100 first-class ships to carry passengers and freight, $1,000,000 each	100,000,000
Cost of 240 first-class freighters at $500,000 each	120,000,000
Provide a working capital of	50,000,000
	$1,378,403,716
Unexpended balance	30,086,887

Where does this affect the farmer? On a car of 180 barrels of apples shipped to Liverpool and sold in the auction the former expense was $171; in 1915 the expense on the same amount was $408.06; increased cost, $237.06. After deducting this expense of $408.06, the balance returned was much less than the cost of production.

The relation of transportation to the price the farmer receives is well illustrated by the price paid for live hogs during the last year.

In September, 1915, hogs were selling for ten cents per pound. There was a large crop through the country. The price was steadily cut until it reached six cents, where it remained until the larger part of the crop was sold, from necessity.

Having a full stock of hogs myself, and knowing that the price of pork in England was forty per cent higher than before the war, while it was forty per cent lower here, and having been engaged in shipping other goods for years, I investigated to see if I could ship a car of dressed meat. I found the rate for carrying was $56 per ton, and, more than that, all space for meat had been assigned to the large packing-houses, so that I was obliged to sell here at the forty per cent cut price of six cents per pound, being the lowest for five years, while the price across the water was advanced forty per cent.

What is the situation with grain and cotton? In 1910 grain was carried for 3 cents per bushel and flour for 7 cents per 100 pounds. In December, 1915, grain was carried for 63 cents per 100, and flour 80 cents per 100 pounds; in January, 1916, the price for carrying cotton had advanced from 10 cents per 100 in 1910 to $3 per 100. This price stopped shipments through Boston and the rate was reduced to $2.50 per 100 pounds.

If there exists any doubt that the commerce of the world is tied up by a system of the most powerful trusts, read the Investigation of Shipping Combines, H. Res. 587, January 23, 1913, No. 10.

The moment a measure of relief is proposed the cry is raised to defend private enterprise. This is not a record of private enterprise, it is "privateering." The interests that prey upon the basic industries of the country have run rampant too long. The defense of these private

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trusts is less excusable than the defense of the express companies against the parcel post, and the idea of operating Government-owned ships only in territory not operated by these combines would be like a parcel post that could operate only where there was no express company. We want more justice and less patronage.

We believe that the people should do for themselves collectively (through their agency of government) whatever they can do better collectively than as individuals.

We ask for a Government owned and operated merchant marine. R. L. CUMMINGS,

Chairman Grange Service Committee.

West Paris, Maine.

A FOURTH WOMAN'S ANSWER TO "A THIRD WOMAN'S VIEW OF PREPAREDNESS"

She says, "What reasonable parallel is there between the policeman and the soldier?"

Does she really think that if it were not known that soldiers and locks and bars were behind the policeman that his "raised hand" would long be effective?

Does she really think that the "no gun behind the door" of the Quaker colonists in the days of William Penn would awaken any chivalry in the breasts of the German militarists who chose unprepared Belgium instead of prepared Switzerland as their short cut to France; and whose civilized savagery deliberately destroys women and children by means of Zeppelin bombs and submarines in order to reach her great end of being, like Rome of old, "Mistress of the World"?

How Germany must laugh in her sleeve at our desire to become willing victims of her greed!

I agree with General Grant that there has never been a time when there *might not have been* "a better way than drawing the sword." However, knowing that the time had not yet come, he did not act upon this theory during the Civil War, but as fast as his men were mowed down by the Confederates he telegraphed back to headquarters, "Send more men." My father always said that "the South was whipped by that attitude of General Grant's, 'More men, more men, till the object is accomplished.'"

Personally, I am a woman who, by force of circumstances, has had to live alone for many years; may not my reputation of being a good shot with a pistol, and not afraid to use it, have been in some measure my protection against marauders? For instance, a poor woman said to her husband, "I should think she would be afraid to sleep out of doors alone as she does." "Huh," he answered, "do you think anybody's going to risk being plugged with that pistol?"

Being prepared for an emergency is not, to my mind, synonymous with aggressiveness, but just the opposite; it merely spells protection from aggression, and but marks the "soft and easy course of life"—the "*real* 'footpath to peace.'" E. C. W.

Lynnwood, Virginia.

MORE "HOWLERS"

In a general efficiency test conducted recently in a Baltimore school the following answers were given to a series of questions asked of students whose ages ranged from fourteen to eighteen years:

There were no Christians among the early Gauls; they were mostly lawyers.

Geometry teaches us how to bisect angels.

A blizzard is the inside of a hen.

A vacuum is a large, empty space where the Pope lives.

A circle is a round, straight line with a hole in the middle.

George Washington married Mary Curtis and in due time became the father of his country.

Sixty gallons make one hedgehog.

Georgia was founded by people who had been executed.

A mountain range is a large cook stove.

Achilles was dipped in the river Styx to make him normal.

Pompeii was destroyed by an eruption of saliva from the Vatican.

Typhoid fever is prevented by fascination.

Baltimore, Maryland. WILSON ROGERS.

WAR AND PEACE

There is congratulation on the course events have taken in the controversy between this country and Germany. Our Government is credited with a diplomatic triumph and a victory for pacific methods. Such views, it is fair to assume, are industriously promoted by interested parties. The facts are directly opposite. Mr. Wilson's Administration is prolonging the war, keeping up the bloodshed and destruction, and piling up the profits of munition-makers. It has given impetus to the Teutonic cause—aid to Germany and her allies. Her reluctant policy, her making a show of yielding to avoid a break, tells the whole story. The tide is turning against the Central Powers, and added influence for the Entente would greatly quicken a fortunate end. Mr. Wilson's policy delays. It delays decision. It delays decision for the right. Germany and her accomplice Austria have committed the greatest crime of the ages. They premeditated unnecessary war. They are condemned by the judgment of the world. It is weakness and not strength that defers the penalty of defeat, the security of the world, and the rebirth of a chastened Germany into a higher and holier life—her true destiny.

WILLIAM MERRILL.

West Newbury, Massachusetts.

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BY THE WAY

One of the most notable of the many memorial performances in honor of Shakespeare took place June 24 at the historic castle of Kronborg, at Elsinore, in Denmark. "Hamlet" was presented by a cast of two hundred performers, in the presence of the King of Denmark and other distinguished auditors. The scenes of the play were thus laid on the very spot where Shakespeare placed them.

An enterprising bank in Syracuse, New York, has instituted a series of exhibits and demonstrations of the manufacturing products of that city. In the commodious lobby of the bank have been displayed chemical products, with photographs and charts; china and pottery, nearly every process of manufacture being shown; typewriters, men's clothing, incubators, and various food products. As a finale, it is planned to exhibit even automobiles and motor trucks in this bank's offices. Not every bank can offer such spacious exhibition rooms as this one in Syracuse, but the advantages of the plan to any city's business men and to any bank showing similar enterprise are obvious.

Sir Hiram Maxim, in his recently published autobiography, says that when he organized the United States Electric Lighting Company its stationery came from the printer with the head, "The United States Electric Lightning Company." Later, in England, he told of this mistake to emphasize the importance of getting the stationery for his new gun company printed correctly. When the first sheets came to him, however, the English printers had made his concern appear as "The Maxim GUM Company."

One of the Maxim guns, says Sir Hiram, was designed to fire a shell weighing about a pound. These shells were of course expensive, costing about $1.60 each. On a demonstration of the gun before Li Hung-chang it fired 400 of the shells, costing about $650, in one minute. The old Chinese statesman, on being told the cost of the shells, said, "This gun fires altogether too fast for China." The King of Denmark's comment was, "That gun would bankrupt my little kingdom in about two hours."

A minister who is called on for an after-dinner speech might tell this anecdote to show his intention not to deliver a sermon, says a book called "English for Business:" A clergyman called on President Lincoln and was introduced. The President shook hands with him and, with an expression of patient waiting, said, "I am now ready to hear what you have to say." "Oh, bless you, sir," explained his visitor, "I have nothing special to say. I merely called to pay my respects and to assure you of my hearty support." "My dear sir," said the President, grasping both hands of his visitor, "I am very glad to see you; I am very glad indeed. I thought you had come to preach to me!"

A ewe, the "Popular Science Monthly" asserts, is disinclined to adopt other lambs if its own offspring die. To make her "mother" another lamb the pelt of her own progeny must be used as a coat for the substitute. She recognizes the pelt by the smell, and adopts the newcomer without hesitation. The above-named magazine prints a photograph of a lamb so adorned, with its foster mother grazing contentedly beside the gay little deceiver.

American fortunes which will go to England through the marriage of American girls to Englishmen of title are, according to an English paper, those of Messrs. W. K. Vanderbilt, Ogden Goelet, Whitelaw Reid, Ogden Mills, George Gould, and Bradley Martin. The incomes from these fortunes are, it is stated, subject to the new income tax of 35 per cent (seven shillings in the pound), which began to operate July 1.

Among the beautiful houses illustrated and described in "The Studio Year Book of Decorative Art," not the least interesting are the South African cottages. Remarkable gables are a distinctive feature, reflecting Dutch influence. Another is the *stoep* or paved area, along the outside of front or other walls, for sitting out in fine weather. This is not roofed, but protected against the sun by a vine on a pergola. Paved with red tiles and furnished with comfortable plastered seats, this is always a feature, and a delightful one, of the Cape homestead.

Good examples of old brass bureau handles, casters, etc., are no longer to be found in the New York market. A recent investigation of antique shops elicited the information that a certain hardware firm makes a large line of "reproductions" of the old designs, and an inquiry of that firm as to whether any of the old brass shops on the East Side would be likely to have original brass of this description brought the answer, "No; they get their 'old' brass from us."

Apropos of the acute hearing shown occasionally by supposedly deaf people, the "Christian Register" says: "Theodore C. Weeks, the banker and broker, once went into the office of the late Irving A. Evans, and said: 'I wish you would lend me $5 until Monday.' Mr. Evans, who was somewhat hard of hearing, said, 'What?' Mr. Weeks, taking courage, said, 'I wish you would lend me $10 until Monday.' Mr. Evans handed out the money with the remark: 'I wish I had heard you the first time.'"

The largest piece of wood ever shipped across the American continent is said to have been one just transported via the Burlington route from the State of Washington to Chicago. It was a fir spar 175 feet long, and required four of the largest flat cars to transport it.

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